1600/59.

A NEW

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND COMMERCIAL

# GRAMMAR;

AND

## PRESENT STATE

OF THE SEVERAL

## *KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.*

CONTAINING

I. The Figures, Motions, and Diſtances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian Syſtem, and the lateſt Obſervations.
II. A general View of the Earth, conſidered as a Planet; with ſeveral uſeful Geographical Definitions and Problems.
III. The grand Diviſions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Iſlands.
IV. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies.
V. Their Climate, Air, Soil, Vegetable Productions, Metals, Minerals, Natural Curioſities, Seas, Rivers, Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Lakes.
VI. The Birds and Beaſts peculiar to each Country.
VII. Obſervations on the Changes that have been any-where obſerved upon the Face of Nature, ſince the moſt early Periods of Hiſtory.
VIII. The Hiſtory and Origin of Nations, their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength, Orders of Knighthood, &c.
IX. The Genius, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Habits of the People.
X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.
XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curioſities.
XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Diſtances of principal Places from London.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

I. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, with the Names of Places alphabetically arranged. II. A TABLE of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY. III. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of remarkable Events, from the Creation to the preſent Time.

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BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, ESQ.

THE ASTRONOMICAL PART BY JAMES FERGUSON, F.R.S.

TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED

*THE LATE DISCOVERIES OF DR. HERSCHEL, AND OTHER EMINENT ASTRONOMERS.*

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ILLUSTRATED WITH

A CORRECT SET OF MAPS,

ENGRAVED FROM THE MOST RECENT OBSERVATIONS AND DRAUGHTS OF GEOGRAPHICAL TRAVELLERS.

THE EIGHTEENTH EDITION,

Corrected and conſiderably Enlarged.

*LONDON:*

PRINTED FOR G. G. AND J. ROBINSON, IN PATER-NOSTER-ROW; AND J. MAWMAN (SUCCESSOR TO MR. DILLY) IN THE POULTRY:

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1800.


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# ADVERTISEMENT.

THE diſtinguiſhed approbation which the public have ſhown to this work, as is evident from the many editions through which it has paſſed, from the rapidity of the ſale of very large impreſſions, and from the increaſing demand which continues to be made for it, affords, it may be preſumed, a proof ſufficiently ſatisfactory of its utility and excellence.

It may, however, be reaſonably expected that, at the appearance of this new edition, ſome account ſhould be given of the improvements which have been made, and of the acceſſion of new matter, which will be found to enrich it.

In an age ſo celebrated as the preſent for Geographical ſcience, and for that ſpirit of adventure which has explored the moſt diſtant countries, it is highly proper that a work of this kind ſhould afford a ſelection of that information which is moſt uſeful and intereſting, and faithfully exhibit every thing valuable to be found in the lateſt voyages and travels. Of theſe, ſince the laſt improved edition of this Grammar, in 1798, a number have been publiſhed, which have been peruſed with the moſt careful attention, and which have furniſhed many important particulars to the accounts of the different kingdoms upon the continent of *Europe*. In our deſcriptions of the extenſive regions of *Aſia*, the embaſſies to Tibet and Ava, of captain Turner and major Symes, have furniſhed us with many important corrections and additions; as in the laſt edition our account of the empire of China was conſiderably enlarged and improved, from ſir George Staunton's authentic Ac-

count of the Voyage and Embaſſy of Lord Macartney.—Of *Africa*, little is yet known; though great exertions have lately been made to add to our knowledge of that continent. The Travels of Mr. Park, who appears to have penetrated farther into the interior parts of that vaſt country than perhaps any other European, and the geographical illuſtrations of his journey by that judicious geographer major Rennell, as alſo the Travels of Mr. Browne in Egypt and Dar-Fur, have enabled us to make important additions to our account of that quarter of the globe.—The Geography of *America* owes much to the labours of Mr. Morſe, a gentleman of that country, who viſited in perſon the ſeveral ſtates in the Union, and maintained an extenſive correſpondence with men of ſcience. From this authentic ſource a particular account is now given of each ſtate ſingly, with its diviſions into diſtricts, counties, towns, &c. beſides a variety of other particulars; and the new ſtates of Vermont, Kentucky, and Tenneſſee, are inſerted in their proper order, according to their reſpective ſituations. The voyages of the unfortunate French navigator, M. de la Pérouſe, and captain Vancouver, have afforded us much uſeful information; the latter, eſpecially, has enabled us to correct the miſrepreſentations of ſome former voyagers, with reſpect to pretended diſcoveries on the north-weſt coaſt of America, which had never before been ſo accurately explored. In fine, no publications on the ſubject of geography, and the preſent ſtate of the different countries of the world, have been publiſhed ſince the laſt edition which have not been carefully conſulted.

As this work is hiſtorical as well as geographical, the perpetual changes of ſtates and human affairs, eſpecially thoſe produced by the late revolutions which have convulſed Europe, have rendered ſome conſider-

able additions and alterations neceſſary in the hiſtorical part. Such have been made in this edition; and the hiſtory of each country is brought down to the preſent time; that of Great Britain is conſiderably enlarged; and the ſtupendous exertions and rapid conqueſts of the French republic have been faithfully detailed; while the calamitous events, which, in that diſtracted country, have been the conſequence of contending factions and an unſettled government, have been pourtrayed in their true colours, and ſuch as cannot fail to excite every honeſt Briton to cheriſh and defend the excellent and well-poiſed conſtitution of his own happy iſland; a conſtitution formed and improved by the accumulated wiſdom of ages.

To make room for theſe additions, and ſuch inſertions as were abſolutely neceſſary to render the work more perfect, ſome parts, which appeared too diffuſe, have been abridged; and others, leſs important, have been omitted. Yet ſo numerous have the additions been, as to enlarge this edition much beyond the laſt. Though the two laſt improved editions exceeded in bulk very conſiderably the preceding ones, this will be found to exceed the laſt (in 1798) by more than thirty pages, and nearly one hundred of new information;—a proof that great pains have been employed to give the work a juſt and continued claim to general notice and approbation.

*Auguſt*, 1800.


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# PREFACE.

To a man ſincerely intereſted in the welfare of ſociety and of his own country, it muſt be particularly agreeable to reflect on the rapid progreſs and general diffuſion of learning and civility which, within the preſent age, have taken place in Great Britain. Whatever may be the caſe in ſome other kingdoms of Europe, we, in this iſland, may boaſt of our ſuperiority to thoſe illiberal prejudices which not only cramp the genius but ſour the temper of man, and diſturb all agreeable intercourſe of ſociety. Among us, learning is no longer confined within the ſchools of the philoſophers, or the courts of the great; but, like all the greateſt advantages which heaven has beſtowed on mankind, it is become as univerſal as it is uſeful.

This general diffuſion of knowledge is one effect of that happy conſtitution of government which, towards the cloſe of the laſt century, was confirmed to us, and which conſtitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people poſſeſs little wealth, have little power, and conſequently meet with little reſpect; in Great Britain the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of courſe, a proper ſhare of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their ſtudies; as the great body of the people, no leſs than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amuſed and inſtructed. Books have been diveſted of the terms of the ſchools, reduced from that ſize which ſuited only the purſes of the rich and the avocations of the ſtudious, and are adapted to perſons of more ordinary fortunes, whoſe attachment to other purſuits admitted of little leiſure for thoſe of knowledge. It is to books of this kind, more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that ſuperior improvement which diſtinguiſhes them from the lower ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and

advance this improvement is the principal deſign of our preſent undertaking. No ſubject appears more intereſting than that we have choſen, and none ſeems capable of being handled in a manner that may render it more generally uſeful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the ſublimeſt purſuit of mankind, it muſt be allowed, is that which moſt nearly intereſts them, and to which their abilities are beſt adapted. And books of Geography, which deſcribe the ſituation, extent, ſoil, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, ſciences, and arts, of all the inhabitants upon earth; promiſe the beſt aſſiſtance for attaining this knowledge.

The compendium of Geography we now offer to the Public differs in many particulars from other books on that ſubject. Beſides exhibiting an eaſy, diſtinct, and ſyſtematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance an inſtructive, though compendious, detail of the general hiſtory of the world. The character of nations depends on a combination of a great many circumſtances, which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the government, &c. of a ſtate, than moſt people ſeem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral, or political, as well as natural Geography, no one of theſe objects ſhould paſs unnoticed. The omiſſion of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only intereſting in itſelf, but which is abſolutely neceſſary for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehenſive notion of the ſubject in general. We have thought it neceſſary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the hiſtory and preſent ſtate of learning in the ſeveral countries we deſcribe, with the characters of ſuch perſons as have been moſt eminent in the various departments of letters and philoſophy. This ſubject will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requiſite, when we conſider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. Theſe objects, indeed, till of late, ſeldom found a place in geographical perfor-

mances; and, even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled in an entertaining or inſtructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting ſolely under the influence of avarice, the paſſion which firſt induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill qualified, to collect ſuch materials as are proper for gratifying our curioſity, with regard to theſe particulars. The geographer, then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information upon ſuch ſubjects. In the courſe of the preſent century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirſt for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many into diſtant lands. Theſe they have explored with a philoſophic attention; and, by laying open the internal ſprings of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and ſtriking picture of human manners, under the various ſtages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifeſt impropriety, we could not but avail ourſelves of their labours, by means of which we have been enabled to give a more copious and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

In conſidering the preſent ſtate of nations, few circumſtances are of more importance than their mutual intercourſe. This is chiefly brought about by commerce, the prime mover in the œconomy of modern ſtates, and of which, therefore, we have never loſt ſight in the preſent undertaking.

We are ſenſible that a reader could not examine the preſent ſtate of nations with much entertainment or inſtruction, unleſs he was alſo made acquainted with their ſituation during the preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have aſſumed their preſent form and appearance. This conſtitutes the hiſtorical part of our work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Inſtead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of newspaper occurrences, no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only ſuch facts as are intereſting, either in themſelves, or from their relation to objects of import-

tance. Inſtead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the hiſtory of each country;—ſuch an epitome as may be read with equal pleaſure and advantage, and which may be conſidered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and, in treating of their particular hiſtory, ſometimes carried our reſearches beyond the limits of modern times, we have thought it neceſſary, for the ſatisfaction of ſuch readers as are unacquainted with claſſical learning, to begin our hiſtorical Introduction with the remote ages of antiquity. By inſerting an account of the ancient world in a book of geography, we afford an opportunity to the reader of comparing together, not only the manners, government, and arts of different nations, as they now appear, but as they ſubſiſted in ancient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the hiſtory of mankind, renders our work more complete than any geographical treatiſe extant.

In the execution of our deſign, we have all along endeavoured to obſerve order and perſpicuity. Elegance we have ſacrificed to brevity; happy to catch the leading features which diſtinguiſh the characters of nations, and by a few ſtrokes to hit off, though not completely to finiſh.

What has enabled us to compriſe ſo many ſubjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omiſſion of many immaterial circumſtances, which are recorded in other performances of the ſame kind, and of all thoſe fabulous accounts or deſcriptions which, to the diſgrace of the human underſtanding, ſwell the works of geographers; though the falſity of them, both from their own nature, and the concurring teſtimony of the moſt enlightened and beſt-informed travellers and hiſtorians, has been long ſince detected.

As to particular parts of the work, we have been more or leſs diffuſe, according to their importance to us as men and as ſubjects of Great Britain. Our own country, in both reſpects, deſerved the greateſt ſhare of our attention. Great Britain, though ſhe cannot boaſt of a more luxuriant ſoil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and ſuperior kind, which make her the delight, the envy, and the miſtreſs of the world:

theſe are, the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political conſtitution, and the moderation of her religious ſyſtem. With regard to the Britiſh empire we have therefore been ſingularly copious.

Next to Great Britain, we have been moſt particular upon the other ſtates of Europe; and always in proportion as they preſent us with the largeſt field for uſeful reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, the important ſyſtem of practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thouſand arguments will appear in favour of a mild religion, a free government, and an extended, unreſtrained commerce.

Europe having occupied ſo large a part of our volume, Aſia next claims our attention; which, however, though in ſome reſpects the moſt famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or inſtruction. In Aſia, a ſtrong attachment to ancient cuſtoms, and the weight of tyrannical power, bear down the active genius of man, and prevent that variety in manners and character which diſtinguiſhes the European nations.

In Africa, the human mind ſeems degraded below its natural ſtate. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country ſo immerſed in rudeneſs and barbarity, beſides that it could afford little inſtruction, would be diſguſting to every lover of mankind. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and ſciences, without which the human mind remains torpid and inactive, diſcover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy ſameneſs almoſt every-where prevails; and the trifling diſtinctions which are diſcovered among them ſeem rather to ariſe from an exceſs of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But though theſe quarters of the globe are treated leſs extenſively than Europe, there is no diſtrict of them, however barren or ſavage, entirely omitted.

America, whether conſidered as an immenſe continent, inhabited by an endleſs variety of different people, or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deſerves very particular attention. The bold diſcovery and barbarous conqueſt of this New World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects which, together with the

deſcription of the country, deſervedly occupy no ſmall ſhare of this performance.

In treating of ſuch a variety of ſubjects, ſome leſs obvious particulars, no doubt, muſt eſcape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures ſketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuſe imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extenſive kind.

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, inſiſt upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are executed with care, by the beſt-informed artiſts in theſe kingdoms, will, we hope, afford ſatisfaction. The ſcience of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from thoſe who are alone capable of giving it, ſtill remains in a very imperfect ſtate; and the exact diviſions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical ſurveys, are far from being well aſcertained. This conſideration has induced us to adopt the moſt unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables, which, if they give not the exacteſt account, afford at leaſt a general idea of this ſubject; which is all indeed we can attain, until the geographical ſcience arrives at greater perfection.



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Plate XXIII.

# CHART OF THE WORLD ON MERCATORS PROJECTION

NORTHERN OCEAN
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OCEAN OR Equinoctial Line
EUROPE
ASIA
AFRICA
ETHIOPIA
INDIAN OCEAN
SOUTHERN OCEAN
NEW HOLLAND
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RUSSIAN EMPIRE
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# INTRODUCTION.

## PART I.

## OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

### SECT. I.

### OF THE PLANETS, THE COMETS, THE FIXED STARS, AND THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.

THE ſcience of GEOGRAPHY cannot be completely underſtood without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. It will therefore be neceſſary to begin this work with a ſummary view of the ſcience of ASTRONOMY, and a brief account of the planets and other heavenly bodies. Of theſe, the moſt conſpicuous is that glorious luminary, the ſun, the fountain of light and heat to the ſeveral planets which move round it, and which, together with it, compoſe what aſtronomers have called the Solar Syſtem. The way or path in which the planets move round the ſun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by aſtronomers, that there are ſeven planets which move round the ſun, each in its own orbit. The names of theſe, according to their nearneſs to the centre or middle point of the ſun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The two firſt, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the ſun), are called *inferior* planets, or, perhaps more properly, *interior* or *inner* planets; the four laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called *ſuperior*, or, perhaps more properly, *exterior* or *outer* planets. If we can form an idea of the manner in which any one of theſe planets, ſuppoſe our earth, moves round the ſun, we can eaſily conceive the manner in which all the reſt perform a ſimilar revolution. We ſhall only, therefore, particularly conſider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we ſhall give, with ſuch explanations as may render it intelligible to the meaneſt capacity.

The earth was long conſidered as one extenſive plane, of no remarkable thickneſs; and the regions below it were ſuppoſed to be the habitations of ſpirits. The heavens, in which the ſun, moon, and ſtars, ap-

peared to move daily from eaſt to weſt, were conceived to be at no great diſtance from it, and to be only deſigned for its uſe or ornament. Several reaſons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needleſs to mention them, becauſe we have now a ſufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators, who have actually ſailed round it; as for inſtance, that of Magellan's ſhip, which was the firſt that circumnavigated the globe, ſailing weſt from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the ſame, after a voyage of 1124 days, without altering its direction, except to the north or ſouth, as compelled by the winds, or intervening land.

The ſpherical figure of the earth being fully proved, the hypotheſis of its motion was evidently rendered much more probable. For while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding, on pillars, though they could not tell what ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion; and a very ſtrong, and, in reality, unanſwerable argument for that motion was derived from conſidering, that, if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets, muſt move round the earth. Now, as aſtronomers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to aſcertain pretty nearly the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth and from each other, in the ſame manner as every perſon acquainted with the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it, — it appeared, that, if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in 24 hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. We muſt, however, remember that theſe two motions in the earth are perfectly diſtinct, and not imagine that the number of revolutions cauſed by the rotatory motion is in proportion to the ſpace paſſed through by the progreſſive, as is the caſe with the ball on the table or the bowling-green. The earth, therefore, in the ſpace of 24 hours, moves from weſt to eaſt, while the inhabitants on the ſurface of it, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time of 24 hours in which they, along with the earth, move from weſt to eaſt. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us eaſily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the ſun. For as that luminary ſeems to have a diurnal motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its own axis, ſo, in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the annual motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it completes in the ſpace of a year. Now, as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

THE PLANETS.] It will eaſily be conceived that what has been ſaid with regard to the motion of the earth, is equally applicable to all the other planets. Of theſe, beſide the ſeven already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are fourteen others which move round four of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four; Saturn has ſeven (two* of theſe having been lately diſcovered by Dr. Herſchel); and the Georgium Sidus two, as that excellent aſtronomer has ſhown. Theſe are called moons, from their reſemblance to our moon; and ſometimes *ſecondary* planets, becauſe they ſeem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

It will be neceſſary for the underſtanding of the following table, to explain what is meant by the *inclination of the axes* of the planets *to their orbits*, and the *mean diſtances* of the planets. We have already ſaid that the annual motion of the earth occaſioned the diverſity of ſeaſons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel to or in a line with the axis of its orbit: becauſe then the ſame parts of the earth would be turned towards the ſun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful viciſſitudes of the ſeaſons, ariſing from the difference in length of the days and nights. This, therefore, is not the caſe: — the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by ſuppoſing a ſpindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the ſpindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards ſome quarter of the heavens, we may form an idea of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the ſpindle to the ground. The ſame obſervation applies to ſome of the other planets, as may be ſeen from the table.

In order to underſtand what is meant by the mean diſtances of the planets from the ſun, we muſt obſerve that the orbit, or path which a planet deſcribes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the ſhape of a figure called an ellipſis, which, though reſembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the ſame planet is not always at the ſame diſtance from the ſun; and the mean diſtance of it is that which is exactly betwixt its greateſt and leaſt diſtance. Here follows the table:

* See the 80th vol. of the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

## A TABLE OF THE DIAMETERS, PERIODS, &c. OF THE SEVERAL PLANETS IN THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

| Names of the planets. | Diameters in English Miles. | Mean diſtances from the ſun, as determined from obſervations of the tranſit of Venus, in 1761. | Annual period round the ſun. | | | Diurnal rotation on its axis. | | | Hourly motion in its orbit. | Hourly motion of its equator. | Inclination of axis to orbit. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Y. | D. | H. | D. | H. | M. | | | | | |
| Sun | 890,000 | | | | | 25 | 6 | 0 | | 3,818 | 8° | 0′ | 0″ |
| Mercury | 3,000 | 36,841,468 | 0 | 87 | 23 | unknown | | | 109,699 | unknw | unknown | | |
| Venus | 7,906 | 68,891,186 | 0 | 224 | 17 | 24 | 8 | 0 | 80,295 | 1,043 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| Earth | 7,970 | 95,173,000 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 68,246 | 1,042 | 23 | 29 | 0 |
| Moon | 2,180 | ditto | 1 | 0 | 0 | 29 | 12 | 44 | 22,290 | 94 | 2 | 10 | 0 |
| Mars | 5,400 | 145,014,148 | 1 | 321 | 17 | 1 | 0 | 40 | 55,287 | 556 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Jupiter | 94,000 | 494,990,976 | 11 | 314 | 18 | 0 | 9 | 56 | 29,083 | 25,920 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Saturn | 78,000 | 907,956,130 | 29 | 167 | 6 | 0 | 10 | 16 | 22,101 | 22,400 | 28 | 0 | 0 |
| Georgium Sidus | 34,217 | 1,815,912,260 | 83 | 121 | 0 | unknown | | | 15,000 | unknw | unknown | | |

The Georgian planet (or Georgium Sidus) was diſcovered by Dr. Herſchel with his teleſcope of great ſize and power, forty feet in length, and four and a half in diameter, in the year 1781. For this diſcovery he obtained from the Royal Society the honorary recompenſe of ſir Godfrey Copley's medal. Though it was not till then known as a planet, yet there are many reaſons to ſuppoſe it had been ſeen before, but had been conſidered as a fixed ſtar. But, from the ſteadineſs of its light, from its diameter being increaſed by high magnifying powers, and from the change he had obſerved in its ſituation, Dr. Herſchel firſt concluded that it was a comet; but in a little time, he, with others, determined that it was a planet, from its vicinity to the ecliptic, the direction of its motion being ſtationary in the time, and in ſuch circumſtances, as correſpond with ſimilar appearances in other planets.—When the moon is abſent, it may be ſeen by the naked eye; and the diſcovery of two ſatellites attending it ſeems to confer upon it a dignity, and to raiſe it into a more conſpicuous ſituation among the great bodies of our ſolar ſyſtem. As the diſtances of the planets, when marked in miles, are a burden to the memory, aſtronomers often expreſs their mean diſtances in a ſhorter way, by ſuppoſing the diſtance from the earth to the ſun to be divided into ten parts. Mercury may then be eſtimated at four of ſuch parts from the ſun, Venus at ſeven, the Earth at ten, Mars at fifteen, Jupiter at fifty-two, Saturn at ninety-five, and the Georgium Sidus at one hundred and ninety.

Comets.] The reader having obtained an idea of the planets from the table, and the previous obſervations neceſſary for underſtanding it, muſt next turn his attention to the comets, which, as they revolve round our ſun, are a part of the ſolar ſyſtem. Theſe, deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſurpriſe us with their ſingular appearance of a train or tail, which accompanies them; become viſible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a ſhort ſtay, go off again to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear. Though ſome of the ancients had more juſt notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to thoſe we ſee in it



every night, and in a few moments vaniſhing, no care was taken to obſerve or record their phænomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of aſtronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is that they are ſolid compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the ſame laws of gravity, ſo as to deſcribe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the ſun in very eccentric ellipſes, and are of much greater denſity than the earth; for ſome of them are heated in every period to ſuch a degree as would vitrify or diſſipate any ſubſtance known to us. Sir Iſaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when neareſt the ſun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it muſt retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period ſhould be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. The number of comets is very much greater than that of the planets which move in the vicinity of the ſun. From the reports of hiſtorians, as well as from the obſervations of late years, it has been aſcertained that more than 450 have been ſeen previous to the year 1771; and when the attention of aſtronomers was called to this object by the expectation of the return of the comet of 1759, no fewer than ſeven were obſerved in the courſe of ſeven years. From this circumſtance, and the probability that all the comets recorded in ancient authors were of conſiderable apparent magnitude, while the ſmaller were overlooked, it is reaſonable to conclude that the number of comets conſiderably exceeds any eſtimation that might be made from the obſervations we now poſſeſs. But the number of thoſe, whoſe orbits are ſettled with ſufficient accuracy to aſcertain their identity when they may appear again, is no more than 59, reckoning as late as the year 1771. The orbits of moſt of theſe are inclined to the plane of the ecliptic in large angles, and the greater number of them approached nearer to the ſun than to the earth. Their motions in the heavens are not all in the order of the ſigns, or direct, like thoſe of the planets; but the number whoſe motion is retrograde, is nearly equal to that of thoſe whoſe motion is direct. All which have been obſerved, however, have moved through the etherial regions and the orbits of the planets, without ſuffering the leaſt ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions; which ſufficiently proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of theſe, that which appeared in 1680 is the moſt remarkable. This comet, at its greateſt diſtance, is about 11 thouſand 200 millions of miles from the ſun, while its leaſt diſtance from the centre of the ſun is about 490 thouſand miles; being leſs than one third part of the ſun's ſemidiameter from his ſurface. In that part of its orbit which is neareſt the ſun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the ſun, as ſeen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, conſequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The aſtoniſhing diſtance that this comet runs out into empty ſpace naturally ſuggeſts to our imagination the vaſt diſtance between our ſun and the neareſt of the fixed ſtars, of whoſe attractions all the comets muſt keep clear, to return periodically and go round the ſun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of aſtronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to thoſe of ſir Iſaac Newton on this ſubject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet laſt paſſed near her orbit: but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us

with ſo little effect; for it may be here obſerved that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth; ſo that, in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable, if not fatal, effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keil, Maclaurin, Derham, Ferguſon, and Whiſton.

THE FIXED STARS.] Having thus briefly ſurveyed the ſolar ſyſtem, which, though great in itſelf, is ſmall in compariſon with the immenſity of the univerſe, we next proceed to the contemplation of thoſe other vaſt bodies, called the *fixed ſtars*, which, being of infinite uſe in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. Theſe fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo extremely ſmall, that the interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them: when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar; and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other; as the planets, from what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing theirs. The ſtars which are neareſt to us ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called ſtars of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed ſtars that are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though, in a clear winter's night without moonſhine, they ſeem to be innumerable (which is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner), yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been by the ancients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can at any time be ſeen with the naked eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the invention of teleſcopes, indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly conſidered as immenſe; becauſe the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. Mr. Flamſteed, late royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 ſtars. Theſe are called teleſcopic ſtars, from their being inviſible without the aſſiſtance of the teleſcope. Dr. Herſchel, to whoſe ingenuity and aſſiduity the aſtronomical world is ſo much indebted, has evinced what great diſcoveries may be made by improvements in the inſtruments of obſervation. In ſpeaking here of his diſcoveries, I ſhall uſe the words of M. de la Lande: "In paſſing rapidly over the heavens with his new teleſcope, the univerſe "increaſed under his eye; 44,000 ſtars, ſeen in the ſpace of a few de-"grees, ſeemed to indicate that there were ſeventy-five millions in the "heavens." But what are all theſe, when compared to thoſe that fill the whole expanſe, the boundleſs fields of æther? Indeed the immenſity of the univerſe muſt contain ſuch numbers as would exceed the utmoſt ſtretch of the human imagination; for who can ſay how far the univerſe extends, or point out thoſe limits where the Creator "ſtayed his rapid wheels," or where he "fixed the golden compaſſes?"

The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth, and from each other, is, of all conſiderations, the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For, notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer to us when the earth is in that part

of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or 190 millions of miles farther removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſequently the largeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable that each of thoſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our ſun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-ſtar appears 27,000 times leſs than the ſun: and, as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. A ray of light, therefore, though its motion is ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us than we do in making a Weſt-India voyage. A ſound, which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with, would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years. And a cannon ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The ſtars, being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have, nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us. For the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as to render thoſe objects viſible by reflection. The ſtars, therefore, ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each particular ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, it is evident that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is far from probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom, and does nothing in vain, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and place them at ſuch diſtances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy*, and a mean opinion of the divine wiſdom; ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead then of one ſun and one world only, in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, that ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſeaſhore; the ſpace they poſſeſs being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would ſcarcely be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although the Georgium Sidus, the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions upwards of ten thouſand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Georgium Sidus; and yet, at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars, as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by virtue of the ſun's attraction.

* Eſpecially ſince there are many ſtars which are not viſible without the aſſiſtance of a good teleſcope; and, therefore, inſtead of giving light to this world, can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

From what we know of our own ſyſtem, it may be reaſonably concluded that all the reſt are with equal wiſdom contrived, ſituated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants. For although there is an almoſt infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through and connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole.

Since the fixed ſtars are prodigious ſpheres of fire, like our ſun, and at inconceivable diſtances from each other as well as from us, it is reaſonable to conclude they are made for the ſame purpoſes that the ſun is, — each to beſtow light, heat, and vegetation, on a certain number of inhabited planets, retained by gravitation within the ſphere of its activity.

What a ſublime idea does this ſuggeſt to the human imagination, limited as are its powers, of the works of the Creator! Thouſands and thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them: and theſe worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity!

If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence, is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how great, how wiſe, how good muſt HE be, who made and governs the whole!

THE CONSTELLATIONS.] The *firſt people* who gave much attention to the fixed ſtars, were the *ſhepherds* in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly for amuſement, and partly with a view to direct them in travelling during the night, obſerved the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the ſtars into different aſſemblages or conſtellations, each of which they ſuppoſed to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The peaſants in our own country do the ſame, for they diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation, which aſtronomers call Urſa Major, by the name of the Plough, the figure of which it certainly may repreſent, with a very little aid from the fancy. The conſtellations in general have preſerved the names which were given them by the ancients; by whom they were reckoned 21 *northern* and 12 *ſouthern*; but the moderns have increaſed the number of the northern to 36, and that of the ſouthern to 32. Beſides theſe, there are the 12 *ſigns* or conſtellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from the Greek word ζωον, an animal, becauſe each of theſe 12 is ſuppoſed to repreſent ſome animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. In the mean time we ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the riſe and progreſs of aſtronomy, and the revolutions which have taken place in that ſcience.

DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.] Mankind muſt have made a very conſiderable improvement in obſerving the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could ſo far diſengage themſelves from the prejudices of ſenſe and popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not fixed and immoveable. We find, accordingly, that Thales, the Mileſian, who, about 580 years before Chriſt, firſt taught aſtronomy in Europe, had made a ſufficient progreſs in this ſcience to calculate eclipſes, or interpoſitions of the moon between the earth and the ſun, or of the earth between the ſun and the moon (the nature of which may be eaſily underſtood from what we have already obſerved). Pythagoras, a native

of Samos, flouriſhed about 50 years after Thales, and was, no doubt, equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. He conceived an idea, which there is no reaſon to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itſelf was in motion, and that the ſun was at reſt. He found that it was impoſſible, in any other way, to explain conſiſtently the heavenly motions. His ſyſtem, however, was ſo extremely oppoſite to all the prejudices of ſenſe and opinion, that it never made great progreſs, nor was ever widely diffuſed in the ancient world. The philoſophers of antiquity, deſpairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reaſon, endeavoured to adapt the one to the other, and in ſome meaſure to reconcile them. Ptolemy, an Egyptian philoſopher, who flouriſhed 138 years before Chriſt, ſuppoſed, with the vulgar, that the earth was fixed immoveably in the centre of the univerſe, and that the ſeven planets, conſidering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it. Above them he placed the firmament of fixed ſtars, then the cryſtalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, laſt of all, the cœlum empyreum, or heaven of heavens. All theſe vaſt orbs he imagined to move round the earth once in 24 hours, and, beſides that, in certain ſtated and periodical times. To account for theſe motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles, called eccentrics and epicycles, croſſing and interfering with each other. This ſyſtem was univerſally maintained by the peripatetic philoſophers, who were the moſt conſiderable ſect in Europe, from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century.

At length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean or true ſyſtem of the univerſe, and publiſhed it to the world in the year 1530. This doctrine had remained ſo long in obſcurity, that the reſtorer of it was conſidered as the inventor; and the ſyſtem obtained the name of the Copernican philoſophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe, however, was ſtill immerſed in ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with thoſe of a refined philoſophy. Copernicus therefore had few abettors, but many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, ſenſible of the defects of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about the year 1586, to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem of his own, which was ſtill more perplexed and embarraſſed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and makes the ſun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The ſun, however, with all the planets, is ſuppoſed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This ſyſtem, notwithſtanding its abſurdity, met with many advocates. Longomontanus, and others, ſo far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they inſiſted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkneſs of many ſucceſſive ages, the firſt dawn of learning and taſte began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which furniſhed new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy, indeed, had almoſt ſtifled the ſcience in its infancy; and Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem, as a damnable hereſy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed a great part of Europe beyond

the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the Scriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a much nobler purpoſe,—to render us juſt, virtuous, and humane; that, inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which, in ſpeaking of natural things, ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to our maker, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time, therefore, noble diſcoveries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. Not only the motions of the heavenly bodies were clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called *Gravity* or *Attraction*, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law, which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, retains the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the whole fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder.

## SECT. II.

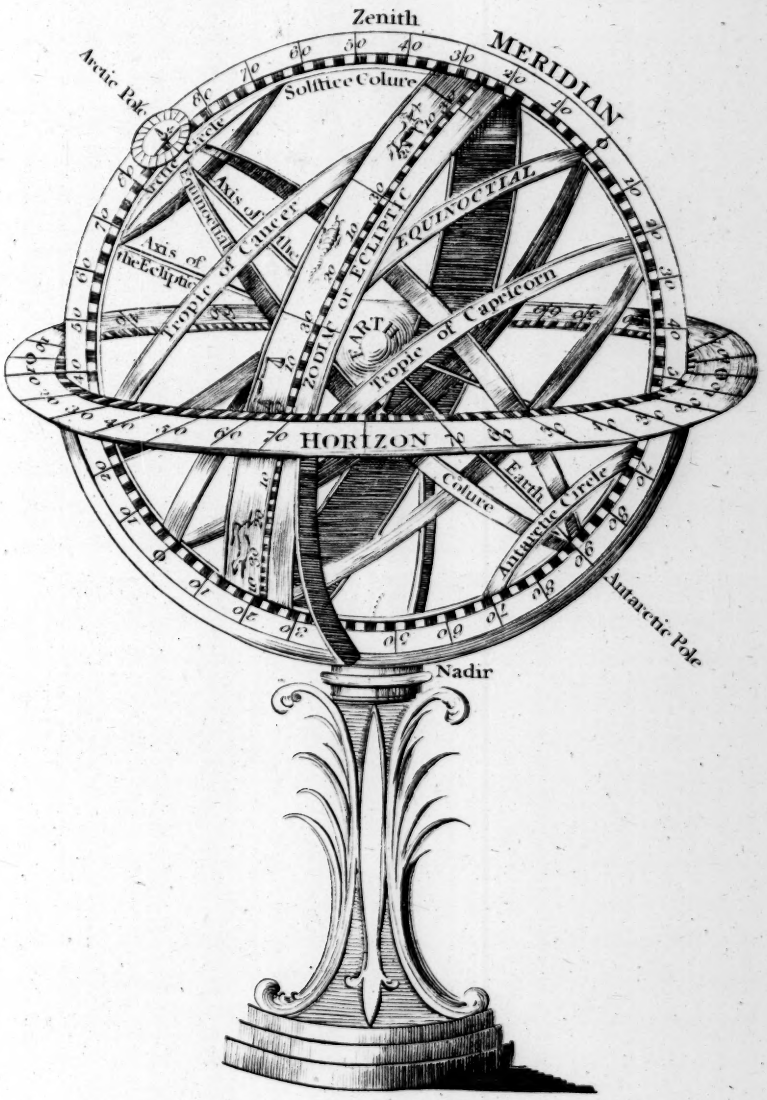
### OF THE SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing ſection, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to precede that of the globe or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next ſection. In treating this ſubject we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the heavenly bodies as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is beſides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes. The imagination therefore is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familiar; and, in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to.

N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere on the oppoſite page.

The ancients obſerved, that all the ſtars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours; that the circles which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth being the largeſt, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved, that there were two points in the heavens which always preſerved the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeemed to turn round them. In order to imitate theſe motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whoſe extremities were fixed to the immoveable points called *Poles*. They farther obſerved, that, on the 20th of March and

# The Armillary Sphere.





23d of September, the circle described by the sun was at an equal distance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, must divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was also called the *Equinoctial Line*, because the sun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having also observed, that, from the 21st of June to the 22d of December, the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and, having arrived there, returned towards that from which he had set out, from the 22d of December to the 21st of June, — they fixed *these points*, which they called *Solstices*, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them; and represented the bounds of the sun's motion by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, because the sun no sooner arrived there than he turned back. Astronomers, observing the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every twenty-four hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a *zone* called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely, at an angle of twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes, the sun's greatest declination. To express this motion, they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from and parallel to this circle, which they called the *Poles* of the zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles by two other circles called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed that when the sun was in any point of his course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they called a *Meridian*, and which is immoveable in the artificial sphere, as well as the *horizon*, which is another circle representing the bounds betwixt the two hemispheres, or half spheres, viz. that which is above, and that which is below it.

## SECT. III.

### OF THE GLOBE.

BY the GLOBE is meant the representation of the different places and countries on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Geographers have represented the situation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, by transferring the circles of the sphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to astronomers, there was nothing more easy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the situation of places was determined, according as they lay on one side of the equator or the other. The same may be observed of the other circles of the sphere above mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the doctrine of the globe is founded, may proceed to consider the doctrine

itſelf, or, in other words, the deſcription of our earth, as repreſented by the *artificial globe*.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though, in ſpeaking of the earth with the other planets, it was ſufficient to conſider it as a ſpherical or globular body,—yet it has been diſcovered that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a ſphere or ball, is not perfectly ſo. This occaſioned great diſputes between the philoſophers of the laſt age, among whom ſir Iſaac Newton and Caſſini, a French aſtronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Iſaac demonſtrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate ſpheroid*, or that it was flatted at the poles, and jutted out towards the equator, ſo that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and paſſing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be ſo long as a line drawn through the ſame centre and paſſing through the eaſt and weſt points. The French philoſopher aſſerted preciſely the reverſe; that is, that its diameter was lengthened towards the poles. In order to decide this queſtion, the king of France, in 1736, ſent out ſome able mathematicians towards the north pole, and likewiſe others towards the equator, in order to meaſure a degree, or the three hundred and ſixtieth part of a great circle, in thoſe different parts; and from their report, the opinion of ſir Iſaac Newton was confirmed beyond diſpute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been conſidered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator. The reaſon of this figure may be eaſily underſtood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly obſerved, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of ſoft clay on a ſpindle, and whirl it round, we ſhall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. This is exactly the caſe with reſpect to our earth; only that its axis, repreſented by the ſpindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not properly ſpherical, the difference from that figure is ſo ſmall, that it may be repreſented by a globe, without any ſenſible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the general table which we have exhibited, page 4, the diameter of the globe is given according the beſt obſervations; ſo that its circumference is 25,038 Engliſh miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of meaſuring, to be divided into three hundred and ſixty parts or degrees, each degree containing ſixty geographical miles, or ſixty-nine Engliſh miles and a half. Theſe degrees are in the ſame manner conceived to be divided each into ſixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line paſſing through its centre, on which it is ſuppoſed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the earth; one in the north and the other in the ſouth, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of theſe poles is of great uſe to the geographer in determining the diſtance and ſituation of places; for the poles mark, as it were, the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator: ſo that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and, in removing from the poles, he approaches the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] Theſe are commonly divided into the *greater* and *leſſer*. A great circle is that whoſe plane paſſes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemiſpheres. A leſſer circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot paſs

through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are *ſix* in number, the leſſer only *four*.

EQUATOR.] The firſt *great circle* is the *Equator*, or *Equinoctial*; and by navigators called the *Line*. The poles of this circle are the ſame with thoſe of the world. It paſſes through the eaſt and weſt points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, the uſe of which will ſoon appear.

HORIZON.] This *great circle* is repreſented by a broad circular piece of wood encompaſſing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemiſpheres. Geographers very properly diſtinguiſh the horizon into the *ſenſible* and *rational*. The firſt is that which bounds the utmoſt proſpect of our ſight, when we view the heavens around us, *apparently* touching the earth or ſea.

This circle determines the riſing or ſetting of the ſun and ſtars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eaſtern edge, we ſay they riſe; and when they go beneath the weſtern, we ſay they are ſet. It appears that each place has its own *ſenſible* horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompaſſes the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is, two points in its axis, each ninety degrees diſtant from its plane, as thoſe of all circles are) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*,—the former exactly above our heads, and the latter directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle which repreſents it on the globe, has ſeveral circles drawn upon it: of theſe the innermoſt is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve ſigns of the zodiac (of which hereafter), viz. thirty to each ſign. Next to this, you have the names of theſe ſigns, together with the days of the month according to the old ſtyle, and then according to the new ſtyle. Beſides theſe, there is a circle repreſenting the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compaſs. The uſe of all theſe will be explained hereafter.

MERIDIAN.] *This circle* is repreſented by the *braſs ring* on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; ſo that, counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. This circle is called the *meridian*, becauſe, when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of it, it is then *meridies* or mid-day, and then the ſun has its greateſt altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now, as the ſun is never in its meridian altitude at two places eaſt or weſt of one another at the ſame time, each of theſe places muſt have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC.] The zodiac is a *broad circle*, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve ſigns above mentioned are repreſented. In the middle of this circle is ſuppoſed another called the *Ecliptic*, from which the ſun never deviates in his annual courſe, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve ſigns are,

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Aries | ♈ | March | 7. Libra | ♎ | September |
| 2. Taurus | ♉ | April | 8. Scorpio | ♏ | October |
| 3. Gemini | ♊ | May | 9. Sagittarius | ♐ | November |
| 4. Cancer | ♋ | June | 10. Capricorn | ♑ | December |
| 5. Leo | ♌ | July | 11. Aquarius | ♒ | January |
| 6. Virgo | ♍ | Auguſt | 12. Piſces | ♓ | February |

COLURES.] If we imagine *two great circles* paſſing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the ſolſtitial points Cancer and Capricorn, theſe are called the Colures,—the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solſtitial Colure.—Theſe are *all* the *great circles*.

TROPICS.] If we ſuppoſe two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes diſtance from it, meaſured on the brazen meridian, the one towards the north, the other towards the ſouth, theſe are called Tropics, from the Greek word τροπη, *a turning*, becauſe the ſun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former courſe. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, becauſe they paſs through the firſt points of theſe ſigns.

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are ſuppoſed to be drawn at the like diſtance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, theſe are called the Polar Circles. The *northern* is called the *Arctic*, becauſe the north pole is near the conſtellation of the Bear, in Greek αρκτος; the *ſouthern*, the *Antarctic*, becauſe oppoſite to the former. And theſe are the *four leſſer circles*. Beſides theſe ten circles now deſcribed, which are always drawn on the globe, there are ſeveral others which are only ſuppoſed to be drawn on it. Theſe will be explained as they become neceſſary, leſt the reader ſhould be diſguſted with too many definitions at the ſame time, without ſeeing the purpoſe for which they ſerve. The principal deſign of all theſe circles being to exhibit the reſpective ſituation of places on the earth, we ſhall proceed to conſider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found eaſier to diſtinguiſh places by the quarters of the earth in which they lay, than by their diſtance from any one point. Thus, after it was diſcovered that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemiſpheres, it was eaſy to ſee that all places on the globe might be diſtinguiſhed, according as they lay on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator.

ZONES.] After the four leſſer circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and conſequently that the places on its ſurface might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay in one or other of theſe portions, which are called *Zones*, from the Greek word ζωνη, which ſignifies a girdle; being broad ſpaces, like ſwathes, girding the earth about.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients *torrid*, becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and ſandy deſerts. This notion, however, has long ſince been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places they have two harveſts in a year; all ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes the moſt perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls. In ſhort, the countries of Africa, Aſia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all reſpects the moſt fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two *temperate zones* are compriſed between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, becauſe, meeting the rays of the ſun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

The two *frigid zones* lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are incloſed within the polar circles. They are called the frigid or frozen, becauſe moſt part of the year it is extremely cold there, and

every thing is frozen ſo long as the ſun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However, theſe zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much leſs fit for living in than the torrid.

None of all theſe zones are thoroughly diſcovered by the Europeans. Our knowledge of the ſouthern temperate zone is very imperfect; we know little of the northern frigid zone; and ſtill leſs of the ſouthern frigid zone. The northern temperate and torrid zones are thoſe we are beſt acquainted with.

Climates.] But the diviſion of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the diſtances between one place and another. This however is ſtill more neceſſary, becauſe it is of more importance to mankind to know the ſituations of places with regard to each other, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determining the relative ſituation of places was to divide the earth into what are called Climates. It was obſerved, that the day was always twelve hours long at the equator, and that the longeſt day increaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth on either ſide of it. The ancients therefore determined how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the *Latitude* of the place, from the greateſt length of the day in that place. They conceived a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator; and as they called the ſpaces contained between theſe circles Climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the pole, ſo the circles themſelves may be called *Climatical Parallels*. This, therefore, was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe; though, as we ſhall ſhow, the deſign which firſt introduced it may be better anſwered in another way. There are thirty climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt twenty-four, the days increaſe by half hours: but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the pole, the days increaſe by months. The nature and reaſon of this the reader will more fully underſtand, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe: in the mean time, we ſhall inſert a table, which will ſerve to ſhow in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator, to be known.

| Cli. | Lat. D. | Lat. M. | Breadt. D. | Breadt. M. | Lo. Da. H. | Lo. Da. M. | Names of Countries and remarkable Places, ſituated in every Climate North of the Equator. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 8 | 25 | 8 | 25 | 12 | 30 | I. Within the firſt Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coaſts in Africa; Malacca in the Eaſt-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, South America. |
| 2 | 16 | 25 | 8 | 0 | 13 | 0 | II. Here lie Abyſſinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry in the Eaſt-Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent and Barbadoes, in the Weſt-Indies. |
| 3 | 23 | 50 | 7 | 25 | 13 | 30 | III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the Eaſt-Indies; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe, in the Weſt-Indies. |
| 4 | 30 | 20 | 6 | 30 | 14 | 0 | IV. Egypt, and the Canary Iſlands, in Africa; Delhi, capital of the Mogul Empire, in Aſia; Gulf of Mexico and Eaſt Florida, in North America; the Havanna, in the Weſt-Indies. |
| 5 | 36 | 28 | 6 | 8 | 14 | 30 | V. Gibraltar in Spain; part of the Mediterranean ſea; the Barbary coaſt, in Africa; Jeruſalem; Iſpahan, capital of Perſia; Nankin in China; California, New Mexico, Weſt Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America. |
| 6 | 41 | 22 | 4 | 54 | 15 | 0 | VI. Liſbon, in Portugal; Madrid, in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Aſia Minor; part of the Caſpian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin, in China; Corea, and Japan; Williamſburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in North America. |
| 7 | 45 | 29 | 4 | 7 | 15 | 30 | VII. Northern provinces of Spain; ſouthern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Conſtantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caſpian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boſton, in New England, North America. |
| 8 | 49 | 1 | 3 | 32 | 16 | 0 | VIII. Paris; Vienna, capital of Germany; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada, in North America. |
| 9 | 52 | 0 | 2 | 59 | 16 | 30 | IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden; Cracow, in Poland; ſouthern provinces of Ruſſia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland. |
| 10 | 54 | 27 | 2 | 27 | 17 | 0 | X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warſaw, in Poland; Labrador, and New South Wales, in North America. |
| 11 | 56 | 37 | 2 | 10 | 17 | 30 | XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen; Moſcow, capital of Ruſſia. |
| 12 | 58 | 29 | 1 | 52 | 18 | | XII. South part of Sweden; Toboſki, cap. of Siberia. |
| 13 | 59 | 58 | 1 | 29 | 18 | 30 | XIII. Orkney Iſles; Stockholm, capital of Sweden. |
| 14 | 61 | 18 | 1 | 20 | 19 | | XIV. Bergen, in Norway; Peterſburgh, in Ruſſia. |
| 15 | 62 | 25 | 1 | 7 | 19 | 30 | XV. Hudſon's Straits, North America. |
| 16 | 63 | 22 | | 57 | 20 | | XVI. Siberia, and the ſouth part of Weſt Greenland. |
| 17 | 64 | 6 | | 44 | 20 | 30 | XVII. Drontheim, in Norway. |
| 18 | 64 | 49 | | 43 | 21 | | XVIII. Part of Finland, in Ruſſia. |
| 19 | 65 | 21 | | 32 | 21 | 30 | XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea, Ruſſia. |
| 20 | 65 | 47 | | 26 | 22 | | XX. Hecla, in Iceland. |
| 21 | 66 | 6 | | 19 | 22 | 30 | XXI. Northern part of Ruſſia and Siberia. |
| 22 | 66 | 20 | | 14 | 23 | | XXII. New North Wales, in North America. |
| 23 | 66 | 28 | | 8 | 23 | 30 | XXIII. Davis's Straits, in ditto. |
| 24 | 66 | 31 | | 3 | 24 | | XXIV. Samoieda. |
| 25 | 67 | 21 | 1 Month. | | | | XXV. South part of Lapland. |
| 26 | 69 | 48 | 2 Months. | | | | XXVI. Weſt Greenland. |
| 27 | 73 | 37 | 3 Months. | | | | XXVII. Zembla Auſtralis. |
| 28 | 78 | 30 | 4 Months. | | | | XXVIII. Zembla Borealis. |
| 29 | 84 | 5 | 5 Months. | | | | XXIX. Spitſbergen, or Eaſt Greenland. |
| 30 | 90 | 0 | 6 Months. | | | | XXX. Unknown. |

LATITUDE.] The diſtance of places from the equator, or what is called the *Latitude*, is eaſily meaſured on the globe, by means of the meridian above deſcribed. For we have only to bring the place, whoſe latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked, and it will be exactly over the place. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either northern or ſouthern; and the nearer the poles, the greater the latitude. No place can have more than ninety degrees of latitude, becauſe the poles, where the reckoning of the latitude terminates, are at that diſtance from the equator.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or, more properly, through every particular place on the earth, geographers ſuppoſe a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The interſection of this circle with the meridian of any place ſhows the true ſituation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The *Longitude* of a place is its ſituation with regard to the firſt meridian, and conſequently reckoned towards the eaſt or weſt: in reckoning the longitude, there is no particular ſpot from which we ought to ſet out preferably to another; but, for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the moſt weſterly of the Canary iſlands, was formerly conſidered as the firſt meridian in moſt of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be ſo many degrees eaſt or weſt of the meridian of Ferro. The modern globes fix the firſt meridian, from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned, in the capital city of the different countries where they are made, viz. the Engliſh globes date the firſt meridian from London or Greenwich, the French globes from Paris, &c. The degrees of longitude are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, becauſe, the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be remote from another above half that diſtance; but many foreign geographers improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal, like thoſe of latitude, but diminiſh in proportion as the meridians incline, or their diſtance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence, in ſixty degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and ſo of the reſt. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude in each parallel of latitude, are ſet down in the table in the following page.

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE FOUND.] To find the longitude and latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we ſhall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the diſtance between two places in the ſame latitude, we have only to ſubtract the greater longitude from the leſs, and the difference, reduced to miles, according to the table given below, will be the diſtance ſought. If the places have the ſame longitude, the difference of latitude turned into miles at the rate of 60 geographic or $69\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh ſtatute miles, to a degree, will give the diſtance.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The diſtance of places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly ſouth, north, eaſt, nor weſt, from one another, may be meaſured by extending the compaſſes from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For inſtance, extend the compaſſes from Guinea in Africa, to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the diſtance to be twenty-five degrees, which, at ſixty miles to a degree, makes the diſtance 1500 miles.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to supply the place of the compasses in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of brass screwed on the brazen meridian, which contains ninety degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the distances and bearings of places are measured without the trouble of first extending the compasses between them, and then applying the same to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a small brass circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

## A TABLE,

SHOWING

The Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

| Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. | Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. | Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 59 | 96 | 31 | 51 | 43 | 61 | 29 | 04 |
| 2 | 59 | 94 | 32 | 50 | 88 | 62 | 28 | 17 |
| 3 | 59 | 92 | 33 | 50 | 32 | 63 | 27 | 24 |
| 4 | 59 | 86 | 34 | 49 | 74 | 64 | 26 | 30 |
| 5 | 59 | 77 | 35 | 49 | 15 | 65 | 25 | 36 |
| 6 | 59 | 67 | 36 | 48 | 54 | 66 | 24 | 41 |
| 7 | 59 | 56 | 37 | 47 | 92 | 67 | 23 | 45 |
| 8 | 59 | 40 | 38 | 47 | 28 | 68 | 22 | 48 |
| 9 | 59 | 20 | 39 | 46 | 62 | 69 | 21 | 51 |
| 10 | 59 | 08 | 40 | 46 | 00 | 70 | 20 | 52 |
| 11 | 58 | 89 | 41 | 45 | 28 | 71 | 19 | 54 |
| 12 | 58 | 68 | 42 | 44 | 95 | 72 | 18 | 55 |
| 13 | 58 | 46 | 43 | 43 | 88 | 73 | 17 | 54 |
| 14 | 58 | 22 | 44 | 43 | 10 | 74 | 16 | 53 |
| 15 | 58 | 00 | 45 | 42 | 43 | 75 | 15 | 52 |
| 16 | 57 | 60 | 46 | 41 | 68 | 76 | 14 | 51 |
| 17 | 57 | 30 | 47 | 41 | 00 | 77 | 13 | 50 |
| 18 | 57 | 04 | 48 | 40 | 15 | 78 | 12 | 48 |
| 19 | 56 | 73 | 49 | 39 | 36 | 79 | 11 | 45 |
| 20 | 56 | 38 | 50 | 38 | 57 | 80 | 10 | 42 |
| 21 | 56 | 00 | 51 | 37 | 73 | 81 | 09 | 38 |
| 22 | 55 | 63 | 52 | 37 | 00 | 82 | 08 | 35 |
| 23 | 55 | 23 | 53 | 36 | 18 | 83 | 07 | 32 |
| 24 | 54 | 81 | 54 | 35 | 26 | 84 | 06 | 28 |
| 25 | 54 | 38 | 55 | 34 | 41 | 85 | 05 | 23 |
| 26 | 54 | 00 | 56 | 33 | 55 | 86 | 04 | 18 |
| 27 | 53 | 44 | 57 | 32 | 67 | 87 | 03 | 14 |
| 28 | 53 | 00 | 58 | 31 | 79 | 88 | 02 | 09 |
| 29 | 52 | 48 | 59 | 30 | 90 | 89 | 01 | 05 |
| 30 | 51 | 96 | 60 | 30 | 00 | 90 | 00 | 00 |

## PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROBLEM 1. *The Diameter of an artificial Globe being given, to find its Surface in ſquare, and its Solidity in cubic Meaſure.*

MULTIPLY the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the firſt: then multiply the ſaid product by one ſixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the ſecond. After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity of the natural globe, as alſo of the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding the ſame, provided it be always and every where of the ſame height; for, having found the perpendicular height of the atmoſphere by the common experiment of the aſcent of mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the ſaid height, and add the ſame to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter, by its proper circumference, which again multiply by one ſixth of that diameter, and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the Globe.*

The globe being ſet upon a true plane, raiſe the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith; and if there be any mariner's compaſs upon the pedeſtal, let the globe be ſo ſituated, that the brazen meridian may ſtand due ſouth and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing for its variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the Longitude and Latitude of any Place.*

For this, ſee page 17.

PROB. 4. *The Longitude and Latitude of any Place being given, to find that Place on the Globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the ſame meridian the degree of latitude, whether ſouth or north, and make a mark where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the mark is the place deſired.

PROB. 5. *The Latitude of any Place being given, to find all thoſe Places that have the ſame Latitude.*

The globe being rectified *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark have the ſame latitude with the given place.

*(a)* PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic at any Time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon; and over-againſt the day you will find the ſign and degree in which the Sun is at that time; which ſign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the ſame is the Sun's place, or nearly, at the time deſired.

PROB. 7. *The Month and Day being given, as alſo the particular Time of that Day, to find thoſe Places of the Globe to which the Sun is in the Meridian at that Time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and ſetting the

index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, or where you are, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. which done, fix the globe in that ſituation, and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper hemiſphere of the brazen meridian; for thoſe are the places deſired.

PROB. 8. *To know the Length of the Day and Night in any Place of the Earth at any Time.*

(a) PROB. 2. (b) PROB. 6. Elevate the pole *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place; find the ſun's place in the ecliptic *(b)* at that time; which being brought to the eaſt ſide of the horizon, ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforeſaid place of the ecliptic touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, look upon the horary circle; and where the index points, reckon the number of hours to the upper figure of XII. for that is the length of the day; the complement of which to 24 hours is the length of the night.

PROB. 9. *To know by the Globe, what o'Clock it is in any Part of the World at any Time, provided you know the Hour of the Day where you are at the ſame Time.*

(c) PROB. 3. Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raiſed *(c)* according to its latitude, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the deſired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the hour at that place.

PROB. 10. *A Place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find the two Days of the Year in which the Sun ſhall be vertical to the ſame.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and obſerve the two points of the ecliptic that paſs through the ſaid degree of latitude. Search upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the ſun's annual motion) on what days he paſſes through the aforeſaid points of the ecliptic; for thoſe are the days required, in which the ſun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The Month and the Day being given, to find by the Globe thoſe Places of the Northern Frigid Zone, where the Sun begins then to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting; as alſo thoſe Places of the Southern Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally abſent.*

(d) PROB. 6. The day given (which muſt always be one of thoſe either between the vernal equinox and the ſummer ſolſtice, or between the autumnal equinox and the winter ſolſtice), find *(d)* the ſun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the ſame, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the ſun's place in the ecliptic, making a mark where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places paſſing under the ſaid mark are thoſe in which the ſun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting, upon the given day. For ſolution of the latter part of the problem, ſet off the ſame diſtance from the ſouth pole upon the brazen meridian towards the equator, as was formerly ſet off from the north; then marking as before, and turning the globe round, all places paſſing under the mark are thoſe where the ſun begins his total diſappearance from the given day.

PROB. 12. *A Place being given in either of the Frigid Zones, to find by the Globe what number of Days the Sun conſtantly ſhines upon the ſaid Place, and what Days he is abſent, as alſo the firſt and laſt Day of his Appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and obſerving its latitude *(a)*, elevate the globe accordingly; count the ſame number of degrees upon the meridian from each ſide of the equator as the place is diſtant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully obſerve what two degrees of the ecliptic paſs exactly under the two points marked on the meridian; firſt for the northern arch of the circle, namely, that comprehended between the two degrees marked, which being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the ſun conſtantly ſhines above the horizon of the given place: and the oppoſite arch of the ſaid circle will in like manner give the number of days in which he is totally abſent, and alſo will point out which days thoſe are. And in thenterval he daily will riſe and ſet.

*(a)* PROB. 2.

PROB. 13. *The Month and Day being given, to find thoſe Places on the Globe, to which the Sun, when in the Meridian, ſhall be vertical on that Day.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic being found *(b)*, bring the ſame to the brazen meridian, on which make a ſmall mark exactly above the ſun's place. Which done, turn the globe; and thoſe places which have the ſun vertical in the meridian, will ſucceſſively paſs under the ſaid mark.

*(b)* PROB. 6.

PROB. 14. *The Month and Day being given, to find upon what Point of the Compaſs the Sun then riſes and ſets in any Place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the deſired place, and, finding the ſun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the ſame to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and it will ſhow the point of the compaſs upon which he then riſes. By turning the globe about till his place coincides with the weſtern ſide of the horizon, you may alſo ſee upon that circle the exact point of his ſetting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the Globe the Length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt Days and Nights in any Part of the World.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the firſt degree of Cancer, if in the northern, or Capricorn, if in the ſouthern hemiſphere, to the eaſt ſide of the horizon; and ſetting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the ſign of Cancer touches the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and then obſerve upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII. reckoning them according to the motion of the index; for that is the length of the longeſt day, the complement of which to 24 hours is the extent of the ſhorteſt night. As for the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night, they are only the reverſe of the former.

PROB. 16. *The Hour of the Day being given in any Place to find thoſe Places of the Earth where it is either Noon or Midnight, or any other particular Hour, at the ſame Time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn about the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. and obſerve what

places are exactly under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian; for in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe about till the index points at the lower figure of XII. and whatever places are then in the lower ſemicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the ſame manner we may find thoſe places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index points at the hour deſired, and obſerving the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The Day and Hour being given, to find by the Globe that particular Place of the Earth to which the Sun is vertical at that Time.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic *(a)* being found, and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the ſame; then *(b)* find thoſe places of the earth in whoſe meridian the ſun is at that inſtant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, obſerve that part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforeſaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the ſun is vertical at that time.

*(a)* PROB. 6.

*(b)* PROB. 16.

PROB. 18. *The Day and Hour at any Place being given, to find all thoſe Places where the Sun is then riſing, or ſetting, or in the Meridian; conſequently all thoſe Places which are enlightened at that Time, and thoſe which have twilight, or dark night.*

This problem cannot be ſolved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour-circle fixed upon the braſs meridian, unleſs the ſun be on or near either of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up with the hour-circle on its ſurface below the meridian, it may be ſolved for any day in the year, according to the following method.

Having found the place to which the ſun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemiſphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place: if the place be in the ſouthern hemiſphere, elevate the ſouth pole accordingly; and bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian. Then, all thoſe places which are in the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon have the ſun riſing to them at that time, and thoſe in the eaſtern ſemicircle have it ſetting; to thoſe under the upper ſemicircle of the braſs meridian, it is noon; and to thoſe under the lower ſemicircle, it is midnight. All thoſe places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the ſun, and have the ſun juſt as many degrees above them as they themſelves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the ſun is vertical; and then laying it over any other place, obſerving what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the ſaid place and the horizon. In all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is juſt beginning; in all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the ſemicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all thoſe places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour index be ſet to the upper XII. or noon, and then the globe be turned round eaſtward on its axis,—when the place comes to the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhow the time of ſun-riſing at that place; and when the ſame place comes to the eaſtern ſe-

micircle of the horizon, the index will ſhow the time of the ſun's ſetting.

To thoſe places which do not go under the horizon, the ſun ſets not on that day: and to thoſe which do not come above it, the ſun does not riſe.

PROB. 19. *The Month and Day being given, with the Place of the Moon in the Zodiac, and her true Latitude, to find the exact Hour when ſhe will riſe and ſet, together with her ſouthing, or coming to the Meridian of the Place.*

The moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily enough at any time by an ordinary almanack; and her latitude, which is her diſtance from the ecliptic, by applying the ſemicircle of poſition to her place in the zodiac. For the ſolution of the problem, elevate the pole *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place; and the ſun's place in the ecliptic at the time being *(b)* found, and marked, as alſo the moon's place at the ſame time, bring the ſun's place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at noon; then turn the globe till the moon's place ſucceſſively meet with the eaſtern and weſtern ſide of the horizon, as alſo the brazen meridian; and the index will point at thoſe various times the particular hours of her riſing, ſetting, and ſouthing.

*(a)* PROB. 2.

*(b)* PROB. 6.

PROB. 20. *Two Places being given on the Globe, to find the true Diſtance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places; and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true diſtance from each other, reckoning every degree to be 69½ Engliſh miles.

PROB. 21. *A Place being given on the Globe, and its true Diſtance from a ſecond Place, to find what other Places of the Earth are at the ſame Diſtance from the given Place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the ſaid place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon upon that quadrant the given diſtance between the firſt and ſecond place, provided the ſame be under 90 degrees; otherwiſe you muſt uſe the ſemicircle of poſition, and making a mark where the reckoning ends, and moving the ſaid quadrant or ſemicircle quite round upon the ſurface of the globe, all places paſſing under that mark are thoſe deſired.

## GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Thoſe places which lie on the equator have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and thoſe places which lie on the firſt meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Conſequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the firſt meridian interſects the equator, has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth equally enjoy the benefit of the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each at all times of the year. For although the ſun declines alternately, from the equator, towards the north and towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator, cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial; for, in all the elevations of the pole, ſhort of 90 degrees (which is the greateſt), one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary; — the circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heavens every 24 hours, being cut more nearly equal in the former caſe, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any one of thoſe places at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination), all thoſe places will keep equally long above and below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics, once a year, but never any where elſe. For there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whoſe declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and there is but one point of the ecliptic, which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the ſun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the ſun, when he is in the nearer tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without ſetting; becauſe no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the ſun is in the farther tropic, he is for the ſame length of time without riſing; becauſe no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But at all other times of the year, he riſes and ſets there, as in other places; becauſe all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or leſs cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon; and when the ſun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal courſe muſt be in one or other of thoſe circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemiſphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night is when the ſun is in the northern tropic; and the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night is when the ſun is in the ſouthern tropic; becauſe no circle of the ſun's daily motion is ſo much above the horizon, and ſo little below it, as the northern tropic; and none ſo little above it, and ſo much below it, as the ſouthern. In the ſouthern hemiſphere, the contrary takes place.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the ſun appears for ſome number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without ſetting, and at the oppoſite time of the year, without riſing; becauſe ſome part of the ecliptic never ſets in the former caſe, and as much of the oppoſite part never riſes in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole theſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is the ſun's continuing preſence or abſence.

13. If a ſhip ſets out from any port, and ſails round the earth eaſtward to the ſame port again, let her perform her voyage in what time ſhe will, the people in that ſhip, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than thoſe who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by going contrary to the ſun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get ſo much the ſooner above the ſetting ſun, than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off from the length of every day a part proportionable to their own motion, they will gain a complete day at their return, without gaining one moment of abſolute time. If they ſail weſtward, they will reckon one day leſs than the people do who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the ſun, they will keep him each particular day ſo much longer above the horizon, as anſwers to that day's courſe; and thereby cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without loſing one moment of abſolute time.

Hence, if two ſhips ſhould ſet out at the ſame time from any port, and ſail round the globe, one eaſtward and the other weſtward, ſo as to meet at the ſame port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they ſail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then ſix, &c.

## OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE conſtituent parts of the Earth are two, the *land* and *water*. The parts of the land are continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmuſes, promontories, capes, coaſts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents (beſides the iſlands), viz. the *eaſtern* and *weſtern* continent. The eaſtern is ſubdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-weſt; Aſia, on the north-eaſt; and Africa (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over), on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, nearly 70 miles broad.

A *continent* is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or kingdoms, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water, as Europe. An *iſland* is a ſmaller part of land, quite ſurrounded by water, as Great Britain. A *peninſula* is a tract of land, every where ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece; and that neck of land which ſo joins it, is called an *iſthmus*; as the iſthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Aſia, and the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a *cape*; as the Cape of Good Hope. A *coaſt* or *ſhore* is that part of a country which borders on the ſea ſide. Mountains, valleys, woods, deſerts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of, and deſcribed, in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulfs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe), viz. the *Atlantic*, the *Pacific*, and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic, or Weſtern Ocean, divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Aſia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

The *ocean* is a vaſt collection of water, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. A *ſea* is a ſmaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A *ſtrait* is a narrow part of the ſea, confined or lying between two ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea into another: as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is ſometimes called a *ſound*; as the ſtrait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of the ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it, except at the paſſage whereby it communicates with the ſea or ocean. If a gulf be very large, it is called an inland ſea; as the Mediterranean; if it do not go far into the land, it is called a *bay*, as the Bay of Biſcay; if it be very ſmall, a *creek*, *haven*, *ſtation*, or *road* for ſhips, as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no deſcription; for theſe leſſer diviſions of water, like thoſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to ſtrengthen the remembrance of the great parts of the land and water we have deſcribed, it may be proper to obſerve that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance between them. The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean; an iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land. A peninſula of land is like a gulf or inland ſea. A promontory or cape of land is like a bay or creek of the ſea; and an iſthmus, whereby two lands are joined, reſembles a ſtrait, which unites one ſea to another.

To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, we ſhall ſubjoin a table, exhibiting the ſuperficial contents of the whole globe in ſquare miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and principal iſlands, placed as they are ſubordinate to each other in magnitude.

| | Square Miles. |
|---|---|
| The Globe | 148,510,627 |
| Seas and unknown Parts | 117,843,821 |
| The Habitable World* | 30,666,806 |
| Europe | 2,749,349 |
| Aſia | 10,257,487 |
| Africa | 8,506,208 |
| America | 9,153,762 |
| Perſian Empire under Darius | 1,650,000 |
| Rom. Em. in its utmoſt height | 1,610,000 |
| Ruſſian | 3,376,485 |
| Chineſe | 1,749,000 |
| Great Mogul | 1,116,000 |
| Turkiſh | 960,057 |
| Britiſh, excluſive of Settlements in Africa and Gibraltar | 809,996 |
| Preſent Perſian | 800,000 |
| **ISLANDS.** | |
| Borneo | 228,000 |
| Madagaſcar | 168,000 |
| Sumatra | 129,000 |
| Japan | 118,000 |
| Great Britain | 72,926 |
| Celebes | 68,400 |
| Manilla | 58,500 |
| Iceland | 46,000 |
| Terra del Fuego | 42,075 |
| Mindanao | 39,200 |

| Iſlands. | Square Miles. |
|---|---|
| Cuba | 38,400 |
| Java | 38,250 |
| Hiſpaniola | 36,000 |
| Newfoundl. | 35,500 |
| Ceylon | 27,730 |
| Ireland | 27,457 |
| Formoſa | 17,000 |
| Anian | 11,900 |
| Gilolo | 10,400 |
| Sicily | 9,400 |
| Timor | 7,800 |
| Sardinia | 6,600 |
| Cyprus | 6,300 |
| Jamaica | 6,000 |
| Flores | 6,000 |
| Ceram | 5,400 |
| Breton | 4,000 |
| Socotra | 3,600 |
| Candia | 3,220 |
| Porto Rico | 3,200 |
| Corſica | 2,520 |
| Zealand | 1,935 |
| Majorca | 1,400 |
| St. Jago | 1,400 |
| Negropont | 1,300 |
| Teneriffe | 1,272 |
| Gothland | 1,000 |
| Madeira | 950 |

| Iſlands. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|
| St. Michael | 920 |
| Sky | 900 |
| Lewis | 880 |
| Funen | 768 |
| Yvica | 625 |
| Minorca | 520 |
| Rhodes | 480 |
| Cephalonia | 420 |
| Amboyna | 400 |
| Orkn. Pomona | 324 |
| Scio | 300 |
| Martinico | 260 |
| Lemnos | 220 |
| Corfu | 194 |
| Providence | 168 |
| Man | 160 |
| Bornholm | 160 |
| Wight | 150 |
| Malta | 150 |
| Barbadoes | 140 |
| Zante | 120 |
| Antigua | 100 |
| St. Chriſtopher's | 80 |
| St. Helena | 80 |
| Guernſey | 50 |
| Jerſey | 43 |
| Bermudas | 40 |
| Rhode | 36 |

To theſe iſlands may be added the following, which have lately been diſcovered or more fully explored. The exact dimenſions of them are not aſcertained: but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largeſt, which is ſuppoſed to be nearly equal in ſize to the whole continent of Europe;

New Holland,
New Guinea,
New Zealand,
New Caledonia,
New Hebrides,

Otaheite, or King George's Iſland,
Friendly Iſlands,
Marqueſas,
Eaſter, or Davis's Iſland.

* The number of inhabitants computed at preſent to be in the known world, at a medium, taken from the beſt calculations, are about 953 millions.

| | |
|---|---|
| Europe contains | 153 Millions |
| Aſia | 500 |
| Africa | 150 |
| America | 150 |
| Total | 953 |

WINDS AND TIDES.] We cannot finiſh the doctrine of the earth, without conſidering the winds and tides, from which the changes that happen on its ſurface principally ariſe.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is every where ſurrounded by a fine inviſible fluid, which extends to ſeveral miles above its ſurface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiments, that a ſmall quantity of air is capable of being expanded, ſo as to fill a very large ſpace, or to be compreſſed into a much ſmaller compaſs than it occupied before. The general cauſe of the expanſion of the air is heat; the general cauſe of its compreſſion is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmoſphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compreſſed. But when air is put in motion we call it *wind* in general, and a breeze, gale, or ſtorm, according to the quickneſs or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore, which are com-

monly conſidered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that, from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees ſouth, there is a conſtant eaſt wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the *Trade Wind*. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun, which, in moving from eaſt to weſt, heats and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a ſtream or tide of air always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe however is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan, which is to mention facts rather than theories.

The winds called the *Tropical Winds*, which blow from ſome particular point of the compaſs without much variation, are of three kinds; 1. The *General Trade Winds*, which extend to nearly thirty degrees of latitude on each ſide of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific ſeas. 2. The *Monſoons*, or ſhifting trade winds, which blow ſix months in one direction, and the other ſix months in the oppoſite. Theſe are moſtly in the Indian or Eaſtern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and is accompanied with terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The *Sea* and *Land Breezes*, which are another kind of periodical winds, that blow from the land from midnight to midday, and from the ſea from about noon till midnight; theſe, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from ſhore. Near the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows nearly always from the weſt, ſouth-weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru in South America, the wind blows conſtantly from the ſouth-weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and that of the eaſternmoſt of the Cape Verd iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and ſuch rains, that this ſea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

It may be alſo uſeful to ſtudents in navigation and geography to obſerve farther, that the courſe or latitude our ſhips generally keep in their paſſage from England to America, and the Weſt Indies, is,

To Boſton in New England, and Halifax in Nova Scotia, from 42 to 43 degrees.

To New York by the Azores or Weſtern Iſlands, 39 degrees.

To Carolina and Virginia by Madeira, which is called the upper courſe, 32 degrees; but the uſual courſe, to take advantage of the trade-winds, is from 16 to 23 degrees; and in this courſe they frequently touch at Antigua: it is this courſe our Weſt India ſhips ſail in.

The Spaniſh galleons and the flota from Spain keep from 15 to 18 degrees; and in their return to Spain, about 37 degrees.

TIDES.] By the *tides* is meant that regular motion of the ſea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obſcurity, till the immortal ſir Iſaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For, having demonſtrated that there is a principle in all bodies within the ſolar ſyſtem, by which they mutually draw or attract one another in proportion to their diſtance, it follows, that thoſe parts of the ſea which are im-

mediately below the moon, muſt be drawn towards it; and conſequently, wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the ſea will be raiſed, which occaſions the flowing of the tide there. A ſimilar reaſon occaſions the flowing of the tide likewiſe in thoſe places where the moon is in the nadir, and which muſt be diametrically oppoſite to the former: for in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, the parts in the nadir being leſs attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's centre, and conſequently muſt be higher than the reſt. Thoſe parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards thoſe places to maintain the equilibrium; to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to the places ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be loweſt. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we ſhall be ſenſible of the reaſon why the tides ebb and flow twice in a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours fifty minutes.

The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is about the times of new and full moon, and are called *Spring Tides:* for at theſe times the actions of both the ſun and moon are united, and draw in the ſame ſtraight line; and conſequently the ſea muſt be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the waters in the zenith, and conſequently in the nadir; and at the oppoſition, or when the earth is between the ſun and moon, while one occaſions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame. The tides are leſs than ordinary twice every month, about the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon, and are called *Neap Tides:* for in thoſe quarters, the ſun raiſes the waters where the moon depreſſes them, and depreſſes where the moon raiſes them; ſo that the tides are only occaſioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is neareſt us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly, were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but ſince there are a multitude of iſlands and continents which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without conſidering the ſituation of the ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects that have a ſhare in producing them.

Currents.] There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the ocean, which ſet ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, which always runs from ſouth to north. A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the ſound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel, ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides riſe very little; but in ſome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they riſe from 12 to 50 feet.

Maps.] A map is the repreſentation of the earth, or a part of it, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The globe truly repreſents the earth; whereas a map, being a plane ſurface, cannot repreſent a ſpherical body. But though the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet by means of ſeveral, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude,

the repreſentation will not fall very much ſhort of the globe for exactneſs; becauſe ſuch maps might be joined together ſo as to form a convex ſurface, nearly as ſpherical as the globe itſelf.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from ſide to ſide, *parallels of latitude*. The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtance, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus, to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe London and Paris, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes, or a bit of thread, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles, which ſhows that London is 210 miles diſtant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt, from each other, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridians and parallels; and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is ſcarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this ſort of meaſure: not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary in the different provinces, from each other, and from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile: and the French have three ſorts of leagues. We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries, compared with the Engliſh, by Dr. Halley.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

The Ruſſian vorſt is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile Engliſh.
The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile, is nearly one Engliſh.
The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Scotch and Iriſh mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The Indian is almoſt 3 Engliſh.
The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The German is more than 4 Engliſh.
The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 Engliſh.
The French common league is near 3 Engliſh; and
The Engliſh marine league is 3 Engliſh miles.

# PART II.

## OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even ſometimes, in ſpeaking of thoſe countries, carried our reſearches beyond modern times,—it was thought neceſſary, in

order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, to preſent him with a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a hiſtory of the world, we do not mean a mere liſt of dates (which, when taken by itſelf, is a thing extremely inſignificant), but an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the cauſes that have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itſelf, and indiſpenſably requiſite to the underſtanding of the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country: it may be called commercial and political geography, and, undoubtedly, conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of that ſcience.

The great event of the creation of the world, before which there was neither matter nor form of any thing, is placed, according to the beſt chronologers, in the year before Chriſt 4004; and in the 710th year of what is called the Julian period, which has been adopted by ſome chronologers and hiſtorians, but is of little real ſervice. The ſacred records have fully determined the queſtion, that the world was not eternal, and alſo aſcertained the time of its creation with great preciſion *.

It appears in general, from the firſt chapters in Geneſis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous; that mankind had made conſiderable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious, both in their ſentiments and manners. Their wickedneſs gave occaſion to a memorable cataſtrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were ſwept from the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very conſiderable change in the ſoil and atmoſphere of this globe, rendering them leſs friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgement of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which has ever ſince made ſuch havock in the world. A curious part of hiſtory follows that of the deluge, — the repeopling of the world, and the riſing of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three ſons of Noah, the firſt founders of nations, was long preſerved among their ſeveral deſcendants. Japhet continued famous among the weſtern nations, under the celebrated name of Iapetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and, among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation ſome centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beaſts; and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod obtained immortal renown, and, by the admiration which his courage and dexterity univerſally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found at Babylon the firſt monarchy whoſe origin is particularly mentioned in hiſtory. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Aſſur; in Egypt the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. That theſe events ſhould have happened ſo ſoon after the deluge, whatever ſurpriſe

B. C. 2348.

B. C. 2247.

* The Samaritan copy of the Pentateuch, or five books of Moſes, makes the antediluvian period only 1307 years, 349 ſhort of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy ſtretches it to 2262 years, which is 606 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of ſuperior authority.

it may have occaſioned to the learned ſome centuries ago, need not in the ſmalleſt degree excite the wonder of the preſent age. We have ſeen, from many inſtances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how ſpeedily mankind increaſe, when the generative faculty lies under no reſtraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extenſive than thoſe of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during that early age; and yet theſe kingdoms are not ſuppoſed to have exiſted four centuries before the diſcovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obſcured. This occaſioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a choſen people. From this period the hiſtory of ancient nations begins to dawn; and we learn ſeveral particulars of importance.

B. C. 1921*.

Mankind had not long been united into ſocieties before they began to oppreſs and deſtroy each other. Chedorlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Perſians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, could not have been very great, ſince, in one of his expeditions, Abraham, aſſiſted only by his houſehold, ſet upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the ſpoil that had been taken. Abraham was ſoon after obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to ſettle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occaſion to Moſes to mention ſome particulars reſpecting the Egyptians, which evidently diſcover the characteriſtics of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is deſcribed in the moſt brilliant colours. He was ſurrounded by a crowd of courtiers, ſolely occupied in gratifying his paſſions. The particular governments into which that country was divided, were now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, became the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been ſo juſtly admired for their wiſdom, were the work of that early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many ſucceſſive princes, who laboured for their eſtabliſhment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the firſt principles of civil order and regular government ſeem to have been tolerably underſtood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into ſeveral diſtricts or ſeparate departments; councils compoſed of experienced and ſelect perſons, were eſtabliſhed for the management of public affairs; granaries for preſerving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in that age enjoyed a commerce far from inconſiderable. Theſe facts, though of an ancient date, deſerve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the preſent inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civiliſation and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained ſeparate for ſeveral centuries: but we ſcarcely know even the names of the kings who governed them, except that of Ninus, the ſucceſſor of Aſſur, who, fired with the ſpirit of conqueſt, extended the

* According to Dr. Playfair's Chronological Tables, the birth of Abraham is fixed at before Chriſt 2080, and his being called out of Urr, at 1986.

bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which, raiſed to its meridian ſplendor by his enterpriſing ſucceſſor Semiramis, and diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Aſſyrian empire, ruled Aſia for many ages.

Javan, ſon of Japhet, and grand-ſon of Noah, was the ſtock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are deſcended. Javan eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands on the weſtern coaſt of Aſia Minor, from whence it was impoſſible that ſome wanderers ſhould not paſs over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon, near Corinth, founded by the Pelaſgi, is generally ſuppoſed to have commenced in the year before Chriſt 2090. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceeded a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Chriſtian æra, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in that country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil polity of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was ſoon diſſolved; and the Greeks, who ſeem to have been at this time as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and, by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The moſt ancient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful. B. C. 1850.

But the hiſtory of the Iſraelites is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. The train of curious events which occaſioned the ſettling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are univerſally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint verſion of the Bible, 1794 years before Chriſt, but, according to the Hebrew chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the world 2315. This is a remarkable æra with reſpect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks conſidered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly diſfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and conſider what we can learn from the ſacred writings, with reſpect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations. B. C. 1689.

It is a common error among writers on this ſubject, to conſider all the nations of antiquity as being then alike in theſe reſpects. They find ſome nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in the ſame ſituation. They diſcover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wiſdom of the firſt ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, with regard to arts and refinement, as between the civiliſed kingdoms of modern Europe, and the Indians of America, or the negroes on the coaſt of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the ſcience and arts of the antediluvian world; theſe he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their poſterity. Thoſe nations, therefore, who ſettled neareſt the original ſeat of mankind, and who had the beſt opportunities to avail themſelves of the knowledge which their great anceſtor was poſſeſſed of, early formed themſelves into regular ſocieties, and made conſiderable improvements in the arts which are moſt ſubſervient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the firſt ages of

the world. Noah cultivated the vine: in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the inſtruments of huſbandry, long before the diſcovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the ſacred writings. It is ſcarcely to be ſuppoſed that the ancient cities, both in Aſia and Egypt, (whoſe foundation, as we have already mentioned, aſcends to the remoteſt antiquity) could have been built, unleſs the culture of the ground had been practiſed at that time. Nations who live by hunting or paſturage only, lead a wandering life, and ſeldom fix their reſidence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture: and though we cannot trace the ſteps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached paſſages in ſacred writ, aſcertain the progreſs which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know from the hiſtory of civil ſociety, that the commercial intercourſe between men muſt be pretty conſiderable, before the metals come to be conſidered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the caſe even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which eſtabliſh this fact, that the uſe of money had not been of ancient date; it had no mark to aſcertain its weight or fineneſs; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave ſilver, the metal was weighed in the preſence of all the people. As commerce improved, and bargains of this ſort became more common, this practice was laid aſide, and the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a particular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the ſecond from Abraham. The *reſilah*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, ſtamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a preciſe and ſtated value. It appears from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Iſhmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, reſembling the modern caravans, who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The ſame obſervation may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the beſt writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and alſo a contemporary with Jacob. He ſpeaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which ſet out from thoſe cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of that country were rather the luxuries than the neceſſaries of life, we ſhall have reaſon to conclude that the countries into which they were ſent for ſale, and particularly Egypt, were conſiderably improved in arts and refinement.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought carefully to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea; which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. Had the deſcendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wiſe anceſtors, it is improbable that they ſhould have ventured on navigating the open ſeas ſo ſoon as we find they did. That branch of his poſterity who ſettled on the coaſts of Paleſtine, were the firſt people of the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce: they were diſtinguiſhed by a word which in the Hebrew tongue ſignifies *merchants*, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they applied themſelves to better their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their principal purſuit: and with all the writers of pagan antiquity they paſs for the inventors of whatever tended to its improvement. At the time of Abraham they were

rded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his laſt words to his children; and, according to Herodotus, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coaſts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, ſuppoſe the knowledge of ſeveral others: aſtronomy, for inſtance, or a knowledge of the ſituation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is neceſſary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and ſo of other arts. In fact, we find, that before the death of Jacob ſeveral nations were ſo well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to meaſure by them the duration of their year. It had been a univerſal cuſtom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into portions of a week, or ſeven days: this undoubtedly aroſe from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for thoſe nations who led a paſtoral life, or who lived under a ſerene ſky, to obſerve that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks; hence the diviſion of a month. Thoſe people, again, who lived by agriculture, and were become acquainted with the diviſion of the month, would naturally remark that twelve of theſe brought back the ſame temperature of the air, or the ſame ſeaſons; hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of ſcience. This, together with the obſervation of the fixed ſtars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, muſt have been very ancient, naturally prepared the way for the diſcovery of the *ſolar year*, which at that time would be thought an immenſe improvement in aſtronomy. But, with regard to thoſe branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Aſia. Europe offers a gloomy ſpectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeneſs and of every elegant art, were deſcended from a ſavage race of men, traverſing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and ſometimes to each other? This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. Thoſe deſcendants of Noah, who had removed to a great diſtance from the plains of Shinar, loſt all connection with the civiliſed part of mankind. Their poſterity became ſtill more ignorant; and the human mind was at length ſunk into an abyſs of miſery and wretchedneſs.

We might naturally expect, that, from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the hiſtory of the great empires of Egypt and Aſſyria would emerge from their obſcurity. This, however, is far from being the caſe; we only get a glimpſe of them, and they diſappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninias, who ſucceeded Semiramis and Ninus in the Aſſyrian throne, we find an aſtoniſhing blank in the hiſtory of that empire, for no leſs than eight hundred years. The ſilence of ancient hiſtory on this ſubject is commonly attributed to the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of the ſucceſſors of Ninus, whoſe lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the hiſtorian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wiſe princes paſs unobſerved and unrecorded. Seſoſtris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is ſuppoſed to have mounted the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, who was ſwallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Chriſt 1492. By his aſſiduity and attention, the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the Egyptians received very conſiderable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Seſoſtris and his immediate ſucceſſors, was, in all probability, the moſt B. C. 1965.

powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the beſt calculation, is ſuppoſed to have contained twenty-ſeven millions of inhabitants. But ancient hiſtory often excites, without gratifying, our curioſity; for, from the reign of Seſoſtris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Chriſt 1781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſtill have continued in a very flouriſhing condition: for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, that ſeat of learning and politeneſs, that ſchool for all who aſpired to wiſdom, owed its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civiliſe the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed among the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what a condition they muſt have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are ſo barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beaſts of the field, were propagated by accidental connections, and with little knowledge of thoſe to whom they owed their generation. Cranaüs, who ſucceeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the keen paſſions of a rude people.

B. C. 1556.

B. C. 1506.

Whilſt theſe princes uſed their endeavours for civiliſing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, was divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphictyon, one of thoſe uncommon geniuſes who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of poſterity, to endeavour to unite in one confederacy the ſeveral independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtine diviſions which muſt render them a prey to one another, or to the firſt enemy who might think proper to invade them. This plan he communicated to the kings or leaders of the different territories, and by his eloquence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their common preſervation. Two deputies from each of thoſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic Council. In this aſſembly, whatever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy, was diſcuſſed and finally determined. Amphictyon likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe political connections are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, had been amaſſed in it. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid foundations, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country preſerved its independence; and, by the union which it inſpired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of the Perſian empire. Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it was inſtituted, the Amphictyonic council is, perhaps, the moſt remarkable political eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind.

B. C. 1496.

In the year before Chriſt 1322, the Iſthmian games were inſtituted at Corinth; and in 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar.

The Greek ſtates, formerly unconnected with each other except by mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to undertake diſtant expeditions for the general intereſt of the confederacy.

The firſt of theſe was the famous expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have taken part.

The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine ſea, and to eſtabliſh colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ſhip Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly named; though we learn from Homer and other ancient writers, that ſeveral veſſels were employed in that expedition. The fleet was, from the ignorance of thoſe who conducted it, long toſſed about on different coaſts. The rocks at ſome diſtance from the mouth of the Euxine ſea occaſioned great difficulty to the Argonauts: they ſent forward a light veſſel, which paſſed through, but returned with the loſs of her rudder. This is expreſſed, in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their ſending out a bird, which returned with the loſs of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obſcurity in which the other events of that expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Æa, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, conſidering the mean condition of the naval art during that age, was not leſs important than the circumnavigation of the earth by our modern diſcoverers. B. C. 1263.

From this expedition to that againſt Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, ſon of the Trojan king, the Greeks muſt have made a wonderful progreſs in arts, in power, and opulence: no leſs than twelve hundred veſſels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. Theſe veſſels, however, were but half-decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their conſtruction. If we add to theſe circumſtances, that the Greeks had not the uſe of the ſaw, an inſtrument ſo neceſſary to the carpenter, a modern muſt form but a mean notion of the ſtrength or elegance of this fleet. B. C. 1184.

Having thus conſidered the ſtate of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumſtances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our preſent undertaking, becauſe it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progreſs of government, arts, and manners, which compoſe ſo great a part of our preſent work. There appears originally to have been a remarkable reſemblance, as to their political ſituation, between the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who preſided in the adminiſtration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being abſolute. In each ſociety there were a number of other leaders, whoſe influence over their particular clans or tribes was not leſs conſiderable than that of the king over his immediate followers. Theſe captains were often at war with each other, and ſometimes with their ſovereign; and each particular ſtate was in miniature, what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. They required the hand of another delicate painter to blend the oppoſite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The hiſtory of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which theſe ſtates, which, for want of union, were weak and inſignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theſeus, king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had, by his exploits, acquired great reputation for valour and ability. He ſaw the inconveniencies to which his country, from being divided into twelve diſtricts, was expoſed; and he conceived, that, by means of the influence which his perſonal character, united to the royal authority with which he was inveſted, had univerſally procured him, he might be able to remove them

For this purpoſe he endeavoured to maintain and even to increaſe his popularity among the peaſants and artiſans; he detached, as much as poſſible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them; he aboliſhed the courts which had been eſtabliſhed in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theſeus, however, did not truſt ſolely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices. By eſtabliſhing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither ſtrangers from all quarters by the proſpect of protection and privileges, he raiſed that city from an inconſiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The ſplendour of Athens and of Theſeus now totally eclipſed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the ſtate was united in one city, and under one ſovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occaſioned ſo much confuſion, being now diveſted of all influence and conſideration, became humble and ſubmiſſive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude ſketch of the origin of the firſt monarchy of which we have a diſtinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other ſtates of Greece. This country, however, was not deſtined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence aroſe, which in a ſhort time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theſeus had divided the Athenians into three diſtinct claſſes, —the nobles, the artiſans, and the huſbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had beſtowed many privileges on the two other ranks of citizens. This plan of politics was followed by his ſucceſſors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their ſovereign, and partly from the progreſs of arts and manufactures which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became conſiderable and independent. Theſe circumſtances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year before Chriſt 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himſelf to death for the ſafety of his people, aboliſhed the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter ſhould be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was ſo much the more remarkable, as it happened about the ſame time that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and deſired a mortal ſovereign, that they might be like other nations.

B. C. 1095.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time, aſſumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days however of Pelopidas and Epaminondas (a period of ſeven hundred years), the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the example of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which, by means of the ſuperiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deſerve our particular attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens, upon the deceaſe of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous

B. C. 1070.

plant. The Athenians, by abolishing the name of king, did not entirely subvert the regal authority: they established a perpetual magistrate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with almost the same powers which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians in time became sensible that the archontic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free state. After it had continued, therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to lessen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the archonship in the same person was three years. But the desire of the Athenians for a more perfect system of freedom than had hitherto been established, increased in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again demanded a reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magistrates should be appointed under this title. B. C. 684. These magistrates were not only chosen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. These alterations were too violent not to be attended with some dangerous consequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the most unruly licentiousness. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly possible that the ancient customs of the realm, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuous spirits of the Athenians in the first flutter of their independence. The wiser part of the state, therefore, who began to prefer any system of government to their present anarchy and confusion, were induced to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of law to bridle the furious and unruly multitude. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, but executed it with so much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient historian, "His laws were "written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence; and the code of Draco proved to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again fell into confusion, which continued till those laws were reformed in the time of Solon, about the year before Christ 594. The wisdom, virtue, and amiable manners of Solon recommended him to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. This employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country; but he long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length, however, motives of public utility overcame all considerations of private ease, safety, and reputation, and determined him to enter on an ocean pregnant with a thousand dangers. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, excepting those relative to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was confounding all notions of right and wrong, and rendering the law ineffectual by means of its severity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law: his establishments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preserved their liberties. He seems to have set out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen should have an equal political importance, was a system of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed; and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in

which all matters of principal concern were determined in the laſt reſort. But leſt this aſſembly, which was compoſed of all the citizens, ſhould, in the words of Plutarch, like a ſhip with too many ſails, be expoſed to the guſts of folly, tumult, and diſorder, be provided for its ſafety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The firſt of theſe courts conſiſted of four hundred perſons, a hundred from each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the aſſembly of the people; the ſecond, though but a court of juſtice, gained a prodigious aſcendency in the republic, by the wiſdom and gravity of its members, who were not choſen but after the ſtricteſt ſcrutiny and the moſt ſerious deliberation.

Such was the ſyſtem of government eſtabliſhed by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will the more excite our admiration. Upon the ſame plan moſt of the other ancient republics were eſtabliſhed. To inſiſt on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor inſtructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great outlines of it at leaſt ought not to be here omitted. The country of which Sparta afterwards became the capital, was, like the other ſtates of Greece, originally divided into ſeveral petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is ſaid to have been the firſt king, about the year before Chriſt 1516. At length, the two brothers, Euryſthenes and Procles, obtaining poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and, what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in a direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Chriſtian æra. The Spartan government, however, did not take that ſingular form which renders it ſo remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus agreed with that already deſcribed, in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and, in general, all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whoſe office was hereditary, though their power was ſufficiently circumſcribed by proper checks and reſtraints. But the great characteriſtic of the Spartan conſtitution aroſe from this, that, in all laws, Lycurgus had at leaſt as much reſpect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all ſorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in fine, which had the ſmalleſt tendency to ſoften the minds of the Spartans, was abſolutely proſcribed. They were forbidden the uſe of money; they lived at public tables on the coarſeſt fare; the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks capable of bearing arms were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. To the Spartans alone war was a relaxation rather than a hardſhip; and they behaved in it with a ſpirit, of which ſcarcely any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

B. C. 1102.

B. C. 884.

In order to ſee the effect of theſe principles, and to connect under one point of view the hiſtory of the different quarters of the globe, we muſt now caſt our eyes on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe great empires of which we have ſo long loſt ſight. We have already mentioned in what obſcurity the hiſtory of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period to the diſſolution of their government by Cambyſes of Perſia, in the year before Chriſt 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wiſdom of

B. C. 781.

their laws and political inſtitutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of theſe ſeem to have been dictated by the true ſpirit of civil wiſdom, and were admirably calculated for preſerving order and good government in an extenſive kingdom. The great empire of Aſſyria likewiſe, which had ſo long diſappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the firſt inſtance we meet with in hiſtory, of a kingdom which fell aſunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakneſs of its ſovereigns. Sardanapalus, the laſt emperor of Aſſyria, neglecting the adminiſtration of affairs, and ſhutting himſelf up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his ſubjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to ſeiſe this opportunity of raiſing their own fortune on the ruins of their maſter's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Beleſis, governor of Babylon, conſpired againſt their ſovereign, and having ſet fire to his capital (in which Sardanapalus periſhed, before Chriſt 820), divided between them his extenſive dominions. Theſe two kingdoms, ſometimes united under one prince, and ſometimes governed each by a particular ſovereign, maintained the chief ſway in Aſia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Aſſyria, anno, before Chriſt, 777: and Shalmaneſer, one of his ſucceſſors, put an end to the kingdom of Iſrael, and carried the ten tribes captive into Aſſyria and Media, before Chriſt 721. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, alſo, in the year before Chriſt 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and maſtered all the countries round him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Perſian yoke. B. C. 538. The manners of this people, brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus in all its various departments, are elegantly deſcribed by Xenophon, a Grecian philoſopher and hiſtorian. It is not neceſſary, however, that we ſhould enter into the ſame detail upon this ſubject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, ſufficient examples of monarchical governments: but how few are our republics! The æra of Cyrus is in one reſpect extremely remarkable, beſides that in it the Jews were delivered from their captivity, becauſe with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſaid to terminate. Let us conſider then the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences,—and, if poſſible, diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety.

The taſte for the great and magnificent ſeems to have been the prevailing character of thoſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers with regard to the great works that adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids, ſtupendous fabrics, ſtill remaining in Egypt, at ſome leagues diſtance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are ſuppoſed to have been the burying-places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and each ſide of the baſe ſix hundred and ninety-three feet in length. The apex is thirteen feet ſquare. The ſecond covers as much ground as the firſt, but is forty feet lower. It was a ſuperſtition among the Egyptians, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming,

or of throwing into the dead body ſuch ſubſtances as experience had diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings, it has been ſuppoſed, were depoſited. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the Eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were really ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures, but totally void of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the conſtruction of vaults. The arts in which thoſe nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroidery. As to the ſciences, they had all along continued to beſtow their principal attention on aſtronomy. It does not appear, however, that they had made great progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phænomena of the univerſe, or indeed in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy. To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that, according to the teſtimony of ſacred and profane writers, the abſurd reveries of magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in proportion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them during the lateſt period of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and without much labour afforded all the neceſſaries, and even luxuries, of life. They had long inhabited great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbariſm, and, of conſequence, brave and warlike. Such revolutions were eaſily effected in the infancy of the military art, when ſtrength and courage alone gave advantage to one nation over another,—when, properly ſpeaking, there were no fortified places, which in modern times have been diſcovered to be ſo uſeful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy,—and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The hiſtory of Perſia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year before Chriſt 529, offers little, conſidered in itſelf, that merits our regard; but, when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly intereſting. The monarchs who ſucceeded Cyrus gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exerciſe thoſe virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's inſtitutions: Athens had juſt recovered from the tyranny of the Piſiſtratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and uſurped the ſupreme power. Such was their ſituation, when the luſt of univerſal empire, which ſeldom fails to torment the breaſt of tyrants, led Darius (at the inſtigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians' burning the city of Sardis) to ſend forth his numerous armies againſt Greece. But the Perſians were no longer thoſe invincible ſoldiers who, under Cyrus, had conquered Aſia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and ſervitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thouſand Athenians, overcame the Perſian army of a hundred thouſand foot and ten thouſand cavalry. His countrymen Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, the firſt celebrated for his abilities, the ſecond for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the nobleſt monuments of the triumph of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over ſervitude, deſerve to be read at length in ancient writers.

B. C. 504.

B. C. 490.

Xerxes, the ſon of Darius, came in perſon into Greece, with an immenſe army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thouſand men. This account has been juſtly conſidered, by ſome ingenious modern writers, as incredible. The truth cannot now be aſcertained; but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable, from the great extent of his empire, and from the abſurd practice of the Eaſtern nations, of encumbering their camp with a ſuperfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every-where defeated, by ſea and land, and eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing-boat. Such was the ſpirit of the Greeks, and ſo well did they know, that, "wanting virtue, life is pain "and woe; that wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks around "for happineſs in vain." But though the Perſian war concluded glorioufly for the Greeks, it is, in a great meaſure, to this war that the ſubſequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they ſuffered the loſs of ſo many brave men, but thoſe in which they acquired the ſpoils of Perſia,—it was not their enduring ſo many hardſhips in the courſe of the war, but their connections with the Perſians after the concluſion of it,—which ſubverted the Grecian eſtabliſhments, and ruined the moſt virtuous confederacy that ever exiſted upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories. Delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another; and their quarrels were fomented by Perſian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them deſirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponneſian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other ſtates of Greece. They continued to weaken themſelves by theſe inteſtine diviſions, till Philip, king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of that prince, became important and powerful), rendered himſelf the abſolute maſter of Greece, by the battle of Chæronea. But this conqueſt is one of the firſt we meet with in hiſtory, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his ſcheme ſo deeply, and by bribery, promiſes, and intrigues, gained over ſuch a number of conſiderable perſons in the ſeveral ſtates of Greece to his intereſt, that another day would have put in his poſſeſſion what Chæronea had denied him. The Greeks had loſt that virtue which was the baſis of their confederacy. Their popular governments ſerved only to give a ſanction to their licentiouſneſs and corruption. The principal orators in moſt of their ſtates were bribed in the ſervice of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demoſthenes, aſſiſted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean but more ſeductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, uſed the ſureſt method of gaining their affections.

B. C. 480.

B. C. 431.

B. C. 338.

Philip had propoſed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long ſurvive the battle of Chæronea. Upon his deceaſe, his ſon Alexander was choſen general againſt the Perſians, by all the Grecian ſtates, except the Athenians and Thebans. Theſe made a feeble effort for expiring liberty; but they were obliged to yield to ſuperior force. Secure on the ſide of Greece, Alexander ſet out on his Perſian expedition, at the head of thirty thouſand foot, and five thouſand horſe. The ſucceſs of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius in three pitched battles, in over-running and ſubduing, not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, whoſe very names had never before

B. C. 334.

reached an European ear, has been described by many authors, both ancient and modern, and constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives rise to a number of æras and events too complicated for our present purpose, and even too uninteresting. After considering therefore, the state of arts and sciences in Greece, we shall pass over to the Roman affairs, where the historical deduction is more simple, and also more important.

B. C. 323.

The bare names of illustrious men who flourished in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the highest perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of that glorious day. Though the eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympius and of the Ephesian Diana were the first monuments of good taste. They were erected by the Grecian colonies who settled in Asia Minor before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the first sculptor whose works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timanthes, during the same age, first discovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished 1000 years before the Christian æra, the tragic poets, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the first considerable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to prosaic writing. Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes to discover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtues of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration,—his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be considered as the equals of the best writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which those philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could divine. But whatever some vain empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking and manner of expression. The Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be endless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors; and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was first reduced into a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country and an ardour for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effects of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians; the cause of it was the wise laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus, had established in Greece. But we must now leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable,

and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are ſtill more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme inſignificance. But when we conſider him as the founder of an empire as extenſive as the world, and whoſe progreſs and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot but be intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was extremely martial; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandiſe themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve an adherence to the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying the nations he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate; whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies with whom he contended had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any conſiderable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice or the uſe of that weapon, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Romans by the united experience of all their enemies. Of both theſe maxims we have an example in the war with the Sabines. Romulus, having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but, finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly threw aſide the latter, and made uſe of the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil polity of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the Senate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers; and, after a long reign ſpent in promoting the civil and military intereſts of his country, was, according to the moſt probable conjecture, privately aſſaſſinated by ſome of the members of that ſenate which he himſelf had inſtituted. B. C. 753. B. C. 717.

The ſucceſſors of Romulus were all very extraordinary perſonages. Numa, who came next after him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, and Servius Tullius, laboured, each during his reign, for the greatneſs of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by the moſt cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the inſolence of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius, who, by diſhonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin family, and with it the diſſolution of the regal government. As the Romans, however, were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterpriſes. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magiſtrates, called conſuls, who, without creating B. C. 509.

the ſame jealouſy, ſucceeded to all the powers of their former ſovereigns. This revolution was very favourable to the Roman power and grandeur. The conſuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were deſirous of ſignaliſing their reign by ſome great action: each vied with thoſe who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out againſt ſome new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour by every conſideration which could excite them, — that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, — we ſhall not be ſurpriſed that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power over all Italy.

The Romans, now ſecure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with in Italy, turned their eyes abroad, and met with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This ſtate had been founded or enlarged on the coaſt of the Mediterranean in Africa, ſome time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians, anno B. C. 869; and, according to the practice of their mother-country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs.

Carthage, in this deſign, had proved wonderfully ſucceſsful. She now commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides that of Africa, which ſhe almoſt entirely poſſeſſed, ſhe had extended herſelf on the Spaniſh ſide through the Straits. Thus miſtreſs of the ſea and of commerce, ſhe had ſeiſed on the iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itſelf; and the Romans were too nearly threatened, not to take up arms. Hence a ſucceſſion of hoſtilities between theſe rival ſtates, known in hiſtory by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic when Rome was an inconſiderable ſtate; but ſhe was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political conſtitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was compoſed of ſoldiers. The firſt war with Carthage laſted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the ſea, with which they had hitherto been unacquainted.

B. C. 264.

A Carthaginian veſſel was wrecked on their coaſt; they uſed it for a model; in three months fitted out a fleet; and the conſul Duilius, who fought their firſt naval battle, was victorious. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the ſpirit which then animated this people. Being taken priſoner in Africa, he was ſent back on his parole to negotiate a change of priſoners. He maintained in the ſenate the propriety of that law which cut off from thoſe who ſuffered themſelves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved; and returned to certain death.

B. C. 260.

B. C. 256.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal, the Carthaginian, was the moſt inflexible and dangerous. His father, Hamilcar, had imbibed an extreme hatred againſt the Romans; and having ſettled the inteſtine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inſpire his ſon, though but nine years old, with his own ſentiments. For this purpoſe he ordered a ſolemn ſacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and, leading his ſon to the altar, aſked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition againſt the Romans. The courageous boy not only conſented to go, but conjured his father, by the gods preſent, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. "That I will joyfully do," replied Hamilcar, "and with all the care of a father who loves

"you, if you will ſwear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Ro-
"mans." Hannibal readily complied; and the ſolemnity of the ceremony, and the ſacredneſs of the oath, made ſuch an impreſſion on his mind, as nothing afterwards could ever efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he croſſes the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and unexpectedly ruſhes down upon Italy. The loſs of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily ſides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuſe, declares againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy abandons them. In this extremity, Rome owed its preſervation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, deſpiſing popular clamour and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The ſtrength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raiſes the ſiege of Nola, takes Syracuſe, and revives the drooping ſpirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of theſe great men, but ſaw ſomething more divine in the young Scipio. The ſucceſs of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converſe with the gods. At the age of four and twenty, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had loſt their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the firſt aſſault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings ſubmit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and ſees her armies defeated. Hannibal, ſixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives hoſtages, and engages never to enter on a war, but with the conſent of the Roman people.

B. C. 218.

B. C. 210.

B. C. 201.

After the conqueſt of Carthage, Rome had inconſiderable wars, but great victories; before, its wars were great, and its victories inconſiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by thoſe quarrels which had laſted ſince the death of Alexander the Great; and of which the ſcene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the Eaſt. The ſtates of Greece had once more diſengaged themſelves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Ætolians, Achæans, and Bœotians; each of theſe was an aſſociation of free cities, which had aſſemblies and magiſtrates in common. The Ætolians were the moſt conſiderable of them all. The kings of Macedon maintained that ſuperiority which, in ancient times when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally poſſeſſed over his leſs powerful neighbours. Philip, the monarch who then reigned in Macedon, had rendered himſelf odious to the Greeks, by ſome unpopular and tyrannical meaſures; the Ætolians were moſt irritated; and, hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their aſſiſtance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garriſons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the ſtates of Greece became their dependents. The Ætolians, diſcovering their firſt error, endeavoured to remedy it by another ſtill more dangerous to themſelves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them againſt king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them againſt the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourſe to the ſame prince, who was at this time the moſt powerful monarch in the Eaſt, and the ſucceſſor to the dominions of Alexander in Aſia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice ſo much as that of the Ætolians; for, inſtead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be moſt vulnerable,

he landed in Greece with a ſmall body of troops, and, being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Aſia. In this war the Romans made uſe of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Ætolians for conquering Philip. They now purſued Antiochus, the laſt object of their reſentment, into Aſia, and, having vanquiſhed him by ſea and land, compelled him to ſubmit to a diſgraceful treaty.

B. C. 190.

In theſe conqueſts the Romans ſtill allowed the ancient inhabitants to poſſeſs their territority; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people; which denomination, however, under a ſpecious name, concealed a condition very ſervile, and inferred that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on thoſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to be aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from Mithridates, king of Pontus, for the ſpace of twenty-ſix years. But this monarch had great reſources. His kingdom, bordering on the inacceſſible mountains of Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men whoſe minds were not enervated by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous; and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not the ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſported at finding a prince who dared to ſhow himſelf an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was at laſt compelled to yield to the ſuperior fortune of the Romans. Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length ſubdued by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and his life, in the year before Chriſt 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and the other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The fame Marius, whoſe name was ſo terrible in Africa, then made the north of Europe to tremble. The barbarians retired to their wilds and deſerts, leſs formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an inceſſant war within her walls. This war had continued from the firſt period of the government. Rome, after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The deſcendants of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Patricians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to ſhake it off. A thouſand diſputes on the ſubject aroſe betwixt them and the patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

B. C. 106.

B. C. 102.

Theſe diſputes, while the Romans preſerved their virtue, were not attended with any ſanguinary conſequences. The patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſatisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of the ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, always named patricians. But when the Romans, by the conqueſt of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements,—when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eaſtern courts, and ſported with every thing juſt and honourable in order to obtain them, —the ſtate, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either ſide to keep it together, became a prey to its own children.

Hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name: the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline; and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little reſpect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their country. They, who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their keeping on foot ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the ſoldiers of Sylla, Rome would have ſurrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæſar at length appears. By ſubduing the Gauls, he gained his country the moſt uſeful conqueſt it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharſalia. Cæſar is victorious almoſt at the ſame time all over the world; in Egypt, in Aſia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all ſides, he is acknowledged maſter at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Caſſius attempt to give Rome her liberty by ſtabbing him in the ſenate-houſe. But though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls under the dominion of Mark Antony; young Cæſar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæſar, wreſts it from him by the ſea-fight at Actium; and there is no Brutus or Caſſius to put an end to his life. Thoſe friends of liberty had killed themſelves in deſpair; and Octavius, under the name of Auguſtus, and title of emperor, remains the undiſturbed maſter of the empire. During theſe civil commotions, the Romans ſtill preſerved the glory of their arms amongſt diſtant nations; and while it was unknown who ſhould be maſter of Rome, the Romans were, without diſpute, the maſters of the world. Their military diſcipline and valour aboliſhed all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Perſian, the Greek, the Aſſyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No ſooner, therefore, was Octavius eſtabliſhed on the throne, than embaſſadors from all quarters of the known world crowd to make their ſubmiſſions. Æthiopia ſues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a moſt formidable enemy, court his friendſhip; India ſeeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the Weſer receives his laws. Victorious by ſea and land, he ſhuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power; and Jeſus Chriſt comes into the world four years before the common æra.

B. C. 48.

B. C. 48.

B. C. 31.

B. C. 7.

Having thus traced the progreſs of the Roman government while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to ſay a few words with regard to the arts, ſciences, and manners of that people. During the firſt ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt, of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politics, and agriculture, were the only arts they ſtudied, becauſe they were the only arts they eſteemed. But upon the downfall of Carthage, the Romans, having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taſte the ſweets of ſecurity, and to cultivate the arts. Their progreſs, however, was not gradual, as in the other countries we have deſcribed. The conqueſt of Greece at once

put them in poſſeſſion of every thing moſt rare, curious, or elegant. Aſia, which was the next victim, offered all its ſtores; and the Romans, from the moſt ſimple people, ſpeedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries, and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orations of Cicero are inferior only to thoſe of Demoſthenes. In poetry, Virgil yields only to Homer, whoſe verſe, like the proſe of Demoſthenes, may be conſidered as inimitable. Horace, however, in his Satires and Epiſtles, had no model among the Greeks, and ſtands to this day unrivalled in that ſpecies of writing. In hiſtory, the Romans can boaſt of Livy, who poſſeſſes all the natural eaſe of Herodotus, and is more deſcriptive, more eloquent, and ſentimental. Tacitus, indeed, did not flouriſh in the Auguſtan age; but his works do himſelf the greateſt honour, while they diſgrace his country and human nature, whoſe corruption and vices he paints in the moſt ſtriking colours. In philoſophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the ſyſtem of the Greek philoſopher Epicurus, deſcribed in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the leaſt attempt. In tragedy they never produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for purity of ſtyle, wants that *vis comica*, or lively vein of humour, that diſtinguiſhes the writings of the comic poets of Greece, and thoſe of our immortal Shakſpeare.

We now return to our hiſtory, and are arrived at an æra which preſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, whoſe acts, a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. They did not, indeed, abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguiſhed its liberties; and while they were practiſing the moſt unwarrantable cruelties upon their ſubjects, they themſelves were the ſlaves of their ſoldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Auguſtus, became the moſt deſpotic empire that ever ſubſiſted in Europe; and the court of its emperors exhibited the moſt odious ſcenes of that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which univerſally prevail under a deſpotic government. When it is ſaid that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civiliſed part of it, chiefly Greece, Carthage, and Aſia. A more difficult taſk ſtill remained for the emperors, to ſubdue the barbarous nations of Europe — the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote people of Scotland; for though theſe countries had been diſcovered, they were not effectually ſubdued by the Roman generals. Theſe nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the ſuperiority of their diſcipline, than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are deſcribed by Tacitus; and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is eaſy to diſcover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they ſubmitted to a foreign yoke. From the obſtinate reſiſtance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in ſubduing the other nations of Europe. The conteſts were bloody; the countries of Europe were ſucceſſively laid waſte; numbers of the inhabitants periſhed in the field, many were carried into ſlavery, and but a feeble remnant ſubmitted to the Roman power. This ſituation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happineſs of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourſe with the Romans, acquired ſome taſte for the arts, ſciences, language, and manners of their new maſters. Theſe, however, were but

miſerable conſolations for the loſs of liberty, for being deprived of the uſe of arms, for being overawed by mercenary ſoldiers, kept in pay to reſtrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy.

The Roman empire, now ſtretched out to ſuch an extent, had loſt its ſpring and force. It contained within itſelf the ſeeds of diſſolution; and the violent irruptions of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, haſtened its deſtruction. Theſe fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany which had never been ſubdued by the Romans, or were ſcattered over the vaſt countries of the north of Europe, and the north-weſt of Aſia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that reſtleſsneſs which actuates the minds of barbarians, and makes them rove from home in queſt of plunder or new ſettlements. The firſt invaders met with a powerful reſiſtance from the ſuperior diſcipline of the Roman legions; but this, inſtead of daunting men of a ſtrong and impetuous temper, only rouſed them to vengeance. They returned to their companions, acquainted them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or bleſſed with a milder climate, than their own; they acquainted them with the battles they had fought, or the friends they had loſt; and warmed them with reſentment againſt their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (ſays an elegant hiſtorian, in deſcribing this ſcene of deſolation), with their wives and children, and ſlaves, and flocks, iſſued forth, like regular colonies, in queſt of new ſettlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deſerted were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. Theſe in their turn puſhed forward into more fertile countries; and, like a torrent continually increaſing, rolled on, and ſwept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or deſtroyed all around them. They made no diſtinction between what was ſacred and what was profane. They reſpected no age, or ſex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the hiſtory of the world, during which the condition of the human race was the moſt calamitous and afflicted, he would, without heſitation, name that which elapſed from the death of Theodoſius the Great, A. D. 395, to the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, labour and are at a loſs for expreſſions to deſcribe the horrors of it. *The ſcourge of God, the deſtroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they diſtinguiſh the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders.

Conſtantine, who was emperor at the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Chriſtianity, transferred the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. The weſtern and eaſtern provinces were in conſequence ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the eaſt, threw down the weſtern barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders. A. D. 328.

Rome (now known by the name of the *Weſtern Empire*, in contradiſtinction to Conſtantinople, which, from its ſituation, was called the *Eaſtern Empire*,) weakened by this diviſion, became a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, was effaced; and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, was ſeated on the throne of the Cæſars. Theſe irruptions into the empire were A. D. 476.

gradual and ſucceſſive. The immenſe fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages; and ſeveral centuries were employed in demoliſhing it. The ancient military diſcipline of the Romans was ſo efficacious, that the remains of it, which deſcended to their ſucceſſors, muſt have rendered them ſuperior to their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſtant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite diſh. The tyranny and the univerſal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or, as they are called, Cæſars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of thoſe nations of which the empire at length became the prey.

Towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were maſters of the ſouthern and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely any veſtige of the Roman policy, juriſprudence, arts, or literature, remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dreſſes, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period, till the 15th century, Europe exhibited a picture of moſt melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, ſcience, taſte, were words ſcarcely in uſe during theſe ages. Perſons of the higheſt rank, and in the moſt eminent ſtations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not underſtand the Breviary, which they were obliged daily to recite; ſome of them could ſcarcely read it. The human mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depreſſed, ſunk into the moſt profound ignorance. The ſuperior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the ninth century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy,—and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the ſame century,—endeavoured to diſpel this darkneſs, and give their ſubjects a ſhort glimpſe of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and inſtitutions. The darkneſs returned, and even increaſed; ſo that a ſtill greater degree of ignorance and barbariſm prevailed throughout Europe.

A new diviſion of property gradually introduced a new ſpecies of government, formerly unknown; which ſingular inſtitution is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Feudal Syſtem*. The king or general, who led the barbarians to conqueſt, parcelled out the lands of the vanquiſhed among his chief officers, binding thoſe on whom they were beſtowed to follow his ſtandard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the ſovereign, and, in diſtributing portions of their lands among their dependents, annexed the ſame condition to the grant; a ſyſtem admirably calculated for defence againſt a foreign enemy, but which degenerated into a ſyſtem of oppreſſion.

The uſurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a ſtate of actual ſervitude, and deprived them of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They were ſlaves fixed to the ſoil which they cultivated, and together with it were tranſferred from one proprietor to another, by ſale or by conveyance. Every offended baron or chieftain buckled on his armour, and fought redreſs at the head of his vaſſals. His adverſaries

met him in like hoſtile array. The kindred and dependents of the aggreſſor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter*.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create ſome power that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals, who, while they enſlaved the people, controlled or gave laws to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. Theſe privileges aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magiſtrates of their own nomination.

The acquiſition of liberty ſoon produced a happy change in the condition of mankind. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flouriſh.

Various cauſes contributed to revive this ſpirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourſe between different nations. Conſtantinople, the capital of the Eaſtern or Greek empire, had eſcaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the Weſt. In this city ſome remains of literature and ſcience were preſerved: this, too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade; and the cruſades, which were begun by the Chriſtian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jeruſalem, having opened a communication between Europe and the Eaſt, Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Chriſtian armies, in their way to Paleſtine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of theſe expeditions was conqueſt and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent. A. D. 1096.

Soon after the cloſe of the holy war, the mariner's compaſs was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations. The Italian ſtates, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, began to eſtabliſh a regular commerce with the Eaſt and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. Theſe commodities they diſpoſed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire ſome taſte of elegance, unknown to their predeceſſors, or deſpiſed by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries the commerce of Europe was almoſt entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in thoſe ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or ſocieties of Lombard merchants ſettled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of theſe companies ſettled in London; and thence the name of Lombard ſtreet was derived. A. D. 1302.

While the Italians in the ſouth of Europe cultivated trade with ſuch induſtry and ſucceſs, the commercial ſpirit awakened in the north towards the middle of the 13th century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infeſted that ſea with their piracies, the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, ſoon after they had begun to open ſome trade with the Italians, entered into a league of mutual defence. They derived ſuch advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a ſhort time, eighty of the moſt conſiderable cities, ſcattered

* This Gothic ſyſtem ſtill prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland ſo late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, ſome relics of theſe Gothic inſtitutions are perceivable at this day.

through thoſe large countries of Germany and Flanders which ſtretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanſeatic League*, which became ſo formidable, that its friendſhip was courted and its enmity dreaded by the greateſt monarchs. The members of this powerful aſſociation formed the firſt ſyſtematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general aſſemblies. They ſupplied the reſt of Europe with naval ſtores, and pitched on different towns, the moſt eminent of which was Bruges in Flanders, where they eſtabliſhed ſtaples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky but not leſs uſeful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanſeatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to ſuch extent as well as advantage, as diffuſed among them a general habit of induſtry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the moſt opulent, the moſt populous, and beſt cultivated countries in Europe.

A. D. 1330. Struck with the flouriſhing ſtate of theſe provinces, of which he diſcovered the true cauſe, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a ſpirit of induſtry among his own ſubjects, who, blind to the advantages of their ſituation, and ignorant of the ſource from which opulence was deſtined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt thoſe manufactures, the materials of which they furniſhed to foreigners. By alluring Flemiſh artiſans to ſettle in his dominions, as well as by many wiſe laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufacture of England, and firſt turned the active and enterpriſing genius of his people towards thoſe arts which have raiſed the Engliſh to the firſt rank among commercial nations.

The Chriſtian princes, alarmed at the progreſs of their inveterate enemies the Turks, endeavoured to gain the friendſhip and aſſiſtance of the khans of Tartary. The Chriſtian embaſſies were managed chiefly by monks, an active and enterpriſing ſet of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, penetrated to the remote courts of thoſe infidels. The Engliſh philoſopher, Roger Bacon, was ſo induſtrious as to collect from their relations and traditions many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, and other books of travels. The firſt regular traveller of the monkiſh kind, who committed his diſcoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with ſome of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Chriſtian ſubjects in that prince's extenſive dominions. Soon after this, a ſpirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general: and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the remoteſt corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery: the diſcovery made by a German chemiſt being only partial and accidental.

A. D. 1405. After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the Chriſtian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt Indies, inſpired their countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt who ſuggeſted the practicability of a paſſage thither by ſea. The Portugueſe had been always famous for their ap-

plication to maritime affairs; and to their diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

The firſt adventurers contented themſelves with ſhort voyages, creeping along the coaſt of Africa, diſcovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progreſs ſouthward, they, in the year 1497, at length diſcovered and doubled the extreme cape of that continent, which opened a paſſage by ſea to the eaſtern ocean, and all thoſe countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portugueſe were intent upon a paſſage to India by the eaſt, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of ſailing thither by the weſt. His propoſal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and abſurd, he laid his ſcheme ſucceſſively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better ſucceſs. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expenſe, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only reſource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he at length ſucceeded, through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. This princeſs was prevailed upon to patroniſe him by the repreſentation of Juan Perez, guardian of the monaſtery of Rabida. He was a man of conſiderable learning, and of ſome credit with queen Iſabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his perſonal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a phyſician ſettled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his ſkill in mathematical knowledge. This inveſtigation completely ſatisfied them of the ſolidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of ſucceſs in executing the plan which he propoſed. Perez, therefore, ſo ſtrongly recommended it to queen Iſabella, that ſhe warmly entered into the ſcheme, and even generouſly offered, to the honour of her ſex, to pledge her own jewels, in order to raiſe as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the ſum that was requiſite, that the queen might not be reduced to the neceſſity of having recourſe to that expedient.

Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon one of the moſt adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; and his ſailors, who were often diſcontented, at length began to inſiſt upon his return, threatening, in caſe of refuſal, to throw him overboard; but the firmneſs of the commander, and the diſcovery of land after a paſſage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives he found to his ſurpriſe that this could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, and that he had accidentally diſcovered a new world,—of which the reader will find a more circumſtantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs in which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Theſe diſcoveries, from which ſuch wealth was deſtined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were accompanied and ſucceeded by others of unſpeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and ſciences, and, laſtly, the happy reformation in religion, all diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th centuries as the firſt æra of modern hiſtory. It was in theſe ages that the powers of Eu- A. D. 1440.

rope were formed into one great political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could have been expected after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions, and ſo many foreign wars, of which we ſhall give ſome account in the hiſtory of each particular ſtate, in the following work. The great events which happened then have not hitherto exhauſted their force. The political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power, then introduced or rendered general, ſtill influence, in ſome degree, the councils of European nations.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain has for a long time enjoyed the greateſt degree of proſperity and glory. She ought, therefore, to be the more attentive to preſerve ſo brilliant a pre-eminence. A great empire cannot be continued in a happy ſituation, but by wiſdom and moderation. Without entering into the labyrinth of political diſputes, it will be acknowledged that the unhappy conteſt of Great Britain with the American colonies, and eſpecially the unſucceſsful war againſt the new republic of France, have plunged her into difficulties; her national debt has been profuſely augmented; and her taxes enormouſly increaſed.

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# PART III.

## OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever rouſed the attention of mankind; but they, being incapable of elevating their ideas to all the ſublimity of his perfections, have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to thoſe nations whoſe religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular paſſions of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven reſpecting this important object. In deducing the hiſtory of religion, therefore, we muſt make the ſame diſtinction which we have hitherto obſerved in tracing the progreſs of arts, ſciences, and civiliſation among mankind. We muſt ſeparate what is human from what is divine,—what had its origin from particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unaſſiſted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this diſtinction, we find, that, in the firſt ages of the world, the religion of the eaſtern nations was pure and luminous. It aroſe from a divine ſource, and was not then diſfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, theſe began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obſcured: and among thoſe tribes which ſeparated at the greateſt diſtance, and in the ſmalleſt numbers, from the more improved ſocieties of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this ſituation a particular people were ſelected by God himſelf to be the depoſitories of his law and worſhip; but the reſt of mankind were left to form hypotheſes upon theſe ſubjects, which were more or leſs

perfect, according to an infinity of circumſtances which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The moſt common religion of antiquity—that which prevailed the longeſt, and extended the wideſt—was POLYTHEISM, or the doctrine of a plurality of gods. The rage of ſyſtem, the ambition of reducing all the phænomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occaſioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this ſpecies of worſhip. For, without entering into a minute detail, it is impoſſible to give an adequate idea of the ſubject: and what is ſaid upon it in general muſt always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be obſerved, that the polytheiſm of the ancients ſeems neither to have been the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor of disfigured traditions concerning the nature of the Divinity. It ſeems to have ariſen during the rudeſt ages of ſociety, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and paſſion. It was built, therefore, ſolely upon ſentiment. As each tribe of men had their heroes, ſo likewiſe they had their gods. Thoſe heroes who led them forth to combat, who preſided in their councils, whoſe image was engraven on their fancy, whoſe exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an exiſtence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendſhip, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot eaſily conceive: but the power of imagination over the ſenſes is what all men have in ſome degree experienced. Combine theſe two cauſes, and it will not appear ſtrange that the image of departed heroes ſhould have been ſeen by their companions animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the ſame functions which they performed when alive. An appearance ſo unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil ſpirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity; and the teſtimony of thoſe who had ſeen it, ſupported by the extreme credulity and romantic caſt of thoſe who had not, gained an univerſal aſſent among all the members of their ſociety. A ſmall degree of reflection, however, would be ſufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes exiſted after death, the ſame might alſo be the caſe with thoſe of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be eſtabliſhed;—the propitious and the hoſtile; the gods who were to be loved, and thoſe who were to be feared. But time, which wears off the impreſſions of tradition, and the frequent invaſions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, deſolated, or tranſplanted, made them loſe the names and confound the characters of thoſe two orders of divinities, and form various ſyſtems of religion, which, though warped by a thouſand particular circumſtances, gave no ſmall indications of their firſt texture and original materials. For, in general, the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were ſubject to all the paſſions of men; they partook even of their partial affections; and, in many inſtances, diſcovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the ſame ſubſtances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambroſia: they had a particular pleaſure in ſmelling the ſteam of the ſacrifices; and they made love with an ardour unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worſhipped naturally reſulted from their character. The moſt enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the ſame notions of gods and religion as thoſe that are to be met with in

the poems of Heſiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flouriſhed before Chriſt 430 years, was the firſt, even in Greece, that publicly announced the exiſtence of one Creator and Governor of the univerſe.

It muſt be obſerved, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical ſocieties, whoſe principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods, who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, alſo had theirs: and there was room enough in the univerſe for both to live together in good fellowſhip, without interfering or joſtling with each other.

The introduction of Chriſtianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the ſervice he requires of men, produced a total alteration in the religious ſentiments and belief of the civiliſed part of mankind, among whom it rapidly made its way by the ſublimity of its doctrine and precepts. It required not the aid of human power; it ſuſtained itſelf by the truth and wiſdom by which it was characteriſed: but in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, of maxims very inconſiſtent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on thoſe who had eſtabliſhed it, firſt occaſioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and the exorbitant claims of the biſhop of Rome over all the members of the Chriſtian world. It is impoſſible to deſcribe, within our narrow limits, all the concomitant cauſes, ſome of which were extremely delicate, by which this ſpecies of univerſal monarchy was eſtabliſhed. The biſhops of Rome, by being removed from the control of the Roman emperors, then reſiding in Conſtantinople; by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites eſtabliſhed among the heathen world, and otherwiſe working on the credulous minds of the barbarians by whom that empire began to be diſmembered; and, by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which fortune threw in their way, ſlowly erected the fabric of their antichriſtian power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The moſt efficacious were the invention of printing, the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which, after many ages of barbarity, made their way into Europe. The ſcandalous lives of thoſe who called themſelves the "*miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt*," their ignorance and tyranny, the deſire natural to ſovereigns of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects the immenſe wealth which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardour of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of the reformation. The unreaſonableneſs of the claims of the church of Rome was demonſtrated; many of her doctrines were proved to be equally unſcriptural and irrational; and ſome of her abſurd mummeries and ſuperſtitions were expoſed both by argument and ridicule. The ſervices of the reformers in this reſpect give them a juſt claim to our veneration; but, involved as they had themſelves been in the darkneſs of ſuperſtition, it was not to be expected that they ſhould be able wholly to free themſelves from errors; they ſtill retained an attachment to ſome abſurd doctrines, and preſerved too much of the intolerant ſpirit of the church from which they had ſeparated themſelves. With all their defects, they are entitled

Plate III.

# EUROPE
from the beft
*AUTHORITIES.*

to our admiration and eſteem; and the reformation, begun by Luther in Germany, in the year 1517, and which took place in England, A. D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil as well as to the religious rights of mankind.

We ſhall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with EUROPE.

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# EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe (containing, according to Zimmermann *, 2,627,574 ſquare miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world, in the other quarters, are eſtimated at 36,666,806 ſquare miles,) is, in many reſpects, that which moſt deſerves our attention. Here the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards improvement; and here the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greateſt variety of character, government, and manners; and from its hiſtory we derive the greateſt number of facts and memorials, either for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world; firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immenſe number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from each other, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the Eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural unſolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils. There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece; and we have ſeen that it was there the human mind began to know and to avail itſelf of its ſtrength; and that many of the arts, ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented, or at leaſt greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itſelf is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther; and it is well deſerving our attention. As ancient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece as it is at preſent, under the deſpotic government of the Turks) was diſtinguiſhed, above all the reſt of Europe, for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitutions,—ſo has Europe in general been remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in the other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, we may diſcover, on due examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force and ſoften the rigour of monarchy. In propor-

* See Zimmermann's Political Survey of Europe, p. 5.

tion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of Europe, ſuch as Ruſſia, France, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Beſides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief ſway, there are in Europe *ariſtocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, Switzerland, and ſome ſtates of Italy, afford examples of the latter. There are likewiſe mixed governments, which cannot be aſſigned to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments of Europe are compoſed only of two of the ſimple forms, ſuch as Poland, and ſeveral ſtates of Italy; all which ſhall be explained at length in their proper places.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, that religion is divided into a a number of different ſects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek church; 2d, Popery; and, 3d, Proteſtantiſm; which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the diſtinguiſhed reformers of the ſixteenth century.

The languages of Europe are derived from the ſix following: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic.

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## GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the 10th degree weſt, and the 65th degree eaſt longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, by Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America; being 3000 miles long, from Cape St. Vincent in the weſt, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-eaſt; and 2500 broad from north to ſouth, from the North Cape in Norway, to Cape Caglia, or Matapan, in the Morea, the moſt ſouthern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and ſtates:

| | Kingdoms. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief City. | Dist. & Bearing from London. | Difference of Time fr. London. | Religions. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Miles. | H. M. | |
| British Empire. | England | 380 | 300 | London | ..... | ..... | Calviniſts, Luth. &c. |
| | Scotland | 300 | 150 | Edinburgh | 400 N. | 0 12 aft. | Calviniſts, &c. |
| | Ireland | 285 | 160 | Dublin | 270 N. W. | 0 26 aft. | Calviniſts & Papiſts. |
| | Norway | 1000 | 300 | Bergen | 540 N. | 0 24 bef. | Lutherans. |
| | Denmark | 240 | 180 | Copenhagen | 500 N. E. | 0 50 bef. | Lutherans. |
| | Sweden | 800 | 500 | Stockholm | 750 N. E. | 1 10 bef. | Lutherans. |
| | Ruſſia | 1500 | 1100 | Peterſburgh | 1140 N. E. | 2 4 bef. | Greek church. |
| | Poland | 700 | 680 | Warſaw | 760 E. | 1 24 bef | Pap. Luth. & Calv. |
| | K. of Pr. Dom. | 609 | 350 | Berlin | 540 E. | 0 49 bef. | Lutherans & Calvin. |
| | Germany | 600 | 500 | Vienna | 600 E. | 1 5 bef. | Pap. Luth. & Calv. |
| | Bohemia | 300 | 250 | Prague | 600 E. | 1 4 bef. | Papiſts. |
| Netherlands. | Holland | 150 | 100 | Amſterdam | 180 E. | 0 18 bef. | Calviniſts. |
| | Flanders | 200 | 200 | Bruſſels | 180 S. E. | 0 16 bef. | Papiſts. |
| | France | 600 | 500 | Paris | 200 S. E. | 0 9 bef. | Papiſts. |
| | Spain | 700 | 500 | Madrid | 800 S. | 0 17 aft. | Papiſts. |
| | Portugal | 300 | 100 | Liſbon | 850 S. W. | 0 38 aft. | Papiſts. |
| | Switzerland | 260 | 100 | Bern, Coire, &c. | 420 S. E. | 0 28 bef | Calviniſts & Papiſts. |
| Italy. | Several ſmall ſtates. | Piedmont, Monferrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuſcany, &c. | | | | | |
| | Ch. cities. | Turin, Caſal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence. | | | | | |
| | Popedom | 240 | 120 | Rome | 820 S. E. | 0 52 bef. | Papiſts. |
| | Naples | 280 | 120 | Naples | 870 S. E. | 1 0 bef. | Papiſts. |
| | Hungary | 300 | 200 | Buda | 780 S. E. | 1 17 bef. | Pap. & Proteſtants. |
| Turkey in | Danubian Provinces | 660 | 420 | Conſtantinople | 1320 S. E. | 1 58 bef. | Mahometans and Greek church. |
| | LittleTartary* | 380 | 240 | Precop | 1500 E. | 2 24 bef. | |
| | Greece | 400 | 240 | Athens | 1360 S. E. | 1 37 bef. | |

* This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Ruſſia; for the particulars of which, ſee RUSSIA.

Exclusive of the BRITISH ISLES before mentioned, EUROPE contains the following principal ISLANDS.

| ISLANDS. | | Chief Town | Subject to |
|---|---|---|---|
| In the Northern Ocean | Iceland | Skalholt | Denmark. |
| Baltic sea | Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Lapland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm | | Ditto. |
| | Gothland, Aland, Rugen | | Sweden. |
| | Osel, Dagho | | Russia. |
| | Usedom, Wollin | | Prussia. |
| Mediterranean Sea | Ivica | Ivica | Spain. |
| | Majorca | Majorca | Ditto. |
| | Minorca | Port Mahon | Ditto*. |
| | Corsica | Bastia | France. |
| | Sardinia | Cagliari | K. of Sard. |
| | Sicily | Palermo | K. of 2 Sic. |
| Adriatic, or Gulph of Venice | Lusiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Leucadia | | Venice. |
| Archipelago and Levant Seas | Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece | | Turkey. |

* Minorca was taken from Spain by General Stanhope, 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, but was besieged and taken by the Spaniards February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, signed at Paris, September 3, 1783. It has since been again taken by the English, November 15, 1798.

## DENMARK.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Danish majesty's dominions with the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts: 1st, East and West Greenland, Iceland, and the islands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and, 4th, his German territories.—The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table.

| DENMARK. | | Square Miles. | Leng. | Bread. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Denmark Proper | North Jutland | 9,600 | 15[illegible] | 98 | Wyburgh. |
| | South Jutland, or Slesvick | 2,115 | 70 | 63 | Slesvick. |
| Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea. | Zealand | 1,935 | 60 | 60 | COPENHAGEN. N. Lat. 55. 41. E. Lon. 12. 40. |
| | Funen | 768 | 38 | 32 | Odensee. |
| | Falsterland, Langland | 220 | 27 | 12 | Nikoping. Naxkaw. |
| | Femeren | 50 | 13 | 8 | Borge. |
| | Alsen | 54 | 15 | 6 | Sonderborge. |
| | Mona | 39 | 14 | 5 | Stege. |
| | Bornholm | 160 | 20 | 12 | Rostcomby. |
| In the North Seas, | Iceland Island | 46,000 | 435 | 185 | Skalholt. |
| | Norway | 71,400 | 750 | 170 | Bergen. |
| | Danish Lapland | 28,400 | 285 | 172 | Wardhuys. |
| Westphalia | Oldenburgh | 1260 | 62 | 32 | Oldenburgh. |
| Lower Saxony | Stormar | 1000 | 52 | 32 | Gluckstadt. |
| | Danish Holstein | | | | |
| | | 163,091 | | | |

Plate IV.


ICELAND, ISLE Drawn to the same Scale.
North Cape
Ins. Fiord
Reike Fiord
Grimsby I.
Grunde Fiord
Hecla
Long Ness
Hola
ICELAND
Waape Fiord
Skalholt
Reyd Fiord
Hern Fiord
British Statute Miles.
OCEAN
NORTHERN
Arctic Circle
Lofoden Isles
Malestrom
Faro Is.
Mainland I.
SHETLAND Is.
Kirkwall
Dungsby Hd.
Murray Firth
Buchan Ness
Aberdeen
Firth of Forth
Newcastle
Whitby
Flamborough Hd.
Humber R.
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
Christiansand
Cape Stant
Bremanger I.
Sulen I.
Berg
Hem
Berghen
Sartor I.
Bommel I.
Karm I.
Christianfiord
Drontheim
Thrond
Theim
Agerhus
Christiania
Christianfand
Swarte
Tyfted
Wybourg
Njutland
Ryperdenmark
Jutland
Jylt I.
Sleswick
Kiel
Elbe R.
GERMANY
Hitteren
Osen
Vigten I.
Helligeland
Malanger
Samien
Aasle
Soderty
Hall
Indal R.
Scalerid
Halin Berg
Hanedy
Sundsmall
Hudrick small
Soderhamn
Falun
Gaffle
Upsal
Westerwes
Stockholm
Nykoping
Gothland
Gothenburg
Tonsberg
Laurvig
Kongsberg
Quitsoe
Gunnis
Lessoe
Laurvig
Tonsberg
Fredericshall
Lindesnas
Wexio
Oeland
Calmar
Carlscrona
Schonen
Lunden
Christianstad
Cimbrishamn
Bornholm
Moen I.
Rugen
Dantzic
PRUSSIA




# SWEDEN
## DENMARK, NORWAY, and FINLAND.
from the best
*AUTHORITIES*

The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimenſions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe, in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly: we ſhall proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities that have come to our hands.

## EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

### EAST GREENLAND,

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 11 and 25 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. according to captain Phipps's obſervations in his voyage, 1773. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by ſir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen (or craggy mountains) from the height and ruggedneſs of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fiſh and fowl are ſaid to forſake the coaſt in winter. The Ruſſians of Archangel have, within the laſt thirty years, formed ſettlements for hunting in ſeveral places of the iſland of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis, or northern lights, reflected from the ſnow, enable them to purſue the chaſe during the long winter's night that reigns in theſe gloomy regions; and they take a great number of ſea-lions, which ſerve them for food. There is a whale fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and Britiſh veſſels, on its coaſts. It likewiſe contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay. The inland parts are uninhabited.

### WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 53 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 conſtant inhabitants. Mr. Crantz, however, thinks the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance, in aſpect, manners, and dreſs, between thoſe people and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the endeavours of the Daniſh and German miſſionaries to convert and civiliſe them. They are low of ſtature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not ſo tall. The hair of their heads is long, ſtraight, and of a black colour: but they have ſeldom any beards, becauſe it is their conſtant practice to root them out. They have high breaſts and broad ſhoulders, eſpecially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can alſo uſe their hands with much ſkill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers; but they are good-humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their moſt agreeable food is the fleſh of rein-deer; but that is now ſcarce among them; and their beſt proviſions are fiſh, ſeals, and ſea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which ſtands in the houſe in a large copper veſſel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fiſh-bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping diſh. The

men make their hunting and fiſhing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats; and the women cover them with ſkins. The men hunt and fiſh: but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themſelves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fiſh upon the ſhore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and alſo the curriers to dreſs the pelts, and make cloaths, ſhoes, and boots, out of them; ſo that they are likewiſe both ſhoemakers and taylors. The women alſo build and repair the houſes and tents, ſo far as relates to the maſonry, the men doing only the carpenters' work. They live in huts during the winter, which is incredibly ſevere; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt accounts of this country, ſays, that in the longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot, from the long continuance of the ſun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their ſummer garments. They have no trade, though they have a moſt improvable fiſhery upon their coaſts; but they employ all the year either in fiſhing or hunting; in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing ſeals.

Curiosities.] The taking of whales in the ſeas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is perhaps one of the boldeſt enterpriſes of man. Theſe fields or pieces of ice are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickneſs; and when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had 13 ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kinds of whales in Greenland; ſome white, and others black. The black ſort, the grand bay whale, is in moſt eſteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords, which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, incloſed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horſe hair; and on each ſide of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone. The bones of his body are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no uſe. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is uſually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head; but grows leſs from thence to the tail.

When the ſeamen ſee a whale-ſpout, the word is immediately given, *a fall! a fall!* when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat; ſix or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually belong to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monſter, finding himſelf wounded, dives ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line faſt enough. To prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the ſide of it, one wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a terrible noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing of cannon. As ſoon as he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time, they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the ſea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has loſt his ſtrength; and when he is dying he turns himſelf upon his back, and is drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up the

pieces, and bring them home: the ſmell of theſe ſhips is almoſt inſufferable. Every fiſh is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland, where theſe whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopoliſed this fiſhery. Of late the Engliſh have alſo been very ſucceſsful in it.

## ICELAND.

THIS iſland, which receives its name from the great maſſes of ice that are ſeen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and a hundred and ſixty in breadth, containing about 46,000 ſquare miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland obſerved ſomething riſing and flaming in the ſea, to the ſouth of Grinbourg, at eight miles diſtance from the rocks des Oiſeaux, which afterwards was found to be a new iſland. The dimenſions and ſituation of this iſland are not well aſcertained; but according to ſome late information it was ſtill increaſing, and great quantities of fire iſſued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, ſettled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were Chriſtians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is ſaid that the Norwegians alſo found among them Iriſh books, bells, and croſiers: and it is conjectured that the people who were there when the Norwegians arrived in the iſland, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at laſt obliged to ſubmit to the kings of Norway, and afterward became ſubject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at firſt governed by an admiral, who was ſent there every year to make the neceſſary regulations; but that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is ſtyled *Stiftſamtmann*, and who conſtantly reſides in the country.

The number of inhabitants in Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times; but great numbers have been deſtroyed by contagious diſeaſes. The plague carried off many thouſands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have alſo been depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be ſaid to be in want of neceſſary food, yet the country has ſeveral times been viſited by great famines. Theſe have been chiefly occaſioned by the Greenland floating ice, which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the graſs from growing, and puts an entire ſtop to their fiſhing. The ſmall-pox has likewiſe been very fatal here; for in the years 1707 and 1708 that diſeaſe deſtroyed 16,000 perſons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-ſized, and well made, though not very ſtrong. They are an honeſt, well-intentioned people, moderately induſtrious, and are very faithful and obliging. Theft is ſeldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hoſpitality, and exerciſe it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fiſhing and the care of their cattle. On the coaſts the men employ their time in fiſhing both winter and ſummer; and the women prepare the fiſh, and ſew and ſpin. The men alſo prepare leather, work at ſeveral mechanic trades, and ſome few work in gold and ſilver. They likewiſe

manufacture a coarſe kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. They have an uncommonly ſtrong attachment to their native country, and think themſelves no where elſe ſo happy. An Icelander, therefore, ſeldom ſettles in Copenhagen, though the moſt advantageous conditions ſhould be offered him. Their diſpoſitions are ſerious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, without previouſly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preſervation when they have paſſed the danger. When they meet together, their chief paſtime conſiſts in reading their hiſtory. The maſter of the houſe begins, and the reſt continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at cheſs; and one of their paſtimes conſiſts in reciting verſes. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns ſing ſtanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occaſionally join in chorus. The dreſs of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but is neat, cleanly, and ſuited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear ſeveral gold, ſilver, or braſs rings. The poorer women dreſs in the coarſe cloth called Wadmal, and always wear black; thoſe who are in better circumſtances wear broad-cloth, with ſilver ornaments, gilt. The houſes of the Icelanders are generally bad: in ſome places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raiſed of lava, with moſs ſtuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with ſods laid over rafters, or ſometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and leſs expenſive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between three ſtones, and the ſmoke iſſues from a ſquare hole in the roof. Their food principally conſiſts of dried fiſh, ſour butter, which they conſider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is ſo ſcarce among them, that there is hardly any peaſant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

Religion.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches in the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters of the iſland, are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Skalholt (the capital of the iſland), and thoſe of the north quarter are ſubject to the biſhop of Hoolum. The iſland is divided into 189 pariſhes, of which 127 belong to the ſee of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the miniſters are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly ſalary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, excluſive of what they have from their congregations.

Language.] The language in Iceland is the ſame as that formerly ſpoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preſerved ſo pure, that any Icelander underſtands their moſt ancient traditional hiſtories.

Learning and learned men.] It is ſaid that poetry formerly flouriſhed very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skallagrimſon, Kormack Ormundſon, Glum Geirſon, and Thorlief Jarlaa, were celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in uſe till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and moſt probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Chriſtian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only conſiſts of ſixteen letters, was found inſufficient. The firſt Icelandiſh biſhop, Iſleif, founded a ſchool at Skalholt; and ſoon after four other ſchools were founded, in which the youth were inſtructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and ſome parts of theoretic philoſophy. From the introduction of the Chriſtian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became ſubject to

Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the ſciences were cultivated and held in eſteem.

But this period of time ſeems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period ſince. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had conſiderable knowledge in morality, philoſophy, natural hiſtory, and aſtronomy. Moſt of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and ſome of them have been printed. Mr. Banks, now ſir Joſeph Banks, preſented one hundred and ſixty-two Icelandiſh manuſcripts to the Britiſh Muſeum. That gentleman viſited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who publiſhed an account of their voyage, obſerves, that he found more knowledge among the lower claſs in Iceland than is to be met with in moſt other places; that many of them could repeat the works of ſome of their poets by heart; and that a peaſant was ſeldom to be found, who, beſides being well inſtructed in the principles of religion, was not alſo acquainted with the hiſtory of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional hiſtories, that being one of their principal amuſements.

John Areſon, biſhop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieſſon, a native of Sweden, in eſtabliſhing a printing preſs in Iceland about the year 1530; and the firſt book printed by him there was the Breviarium Nidaroſienſe. He alſo printed an eccleſiaſtical manual, Luther's catechiſm, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been eſtabliſhed at Hrappſey in this iſland, at which ſeveral valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this iſland is ſituated ſo far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have ſeveral times laid the country almoſt deſolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth and produced very fatal effects. Many of the ſnowy mountains have alſo gradually become volcanoes. Of theſe burning mountains, Heckla is moſt known to foreigners. This mountain is ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſland, about four miles from the ſea-coaſt, and is divided into three points at the top, the higheſt of which is that in the middle, which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the ſea. This mountain has frequently ſent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round the iſland to the diſtance of 180 Engliſh miles. An eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded from the mountain in December 1771, and 1772; but no ſtreams of lava.

But the greateſt of the eruptions of Iceland, and, in fact, the moſt tremendous of any recorded in hiſtory, was that in 1783, which, we are aſſured, on the authority of Mr Pennant, extended ninety-four miles in length, and fifty in breadth, dried up twelve rivers, and overwhelmed not only all the villages it found in its way, but likewiſe many hills. The perpendicular height of the ſides of this current was from eighty to a hundred feet, ſo that the entire ſurface of the country was in a ſtate of fluidity, and formed a lake of fire, reſembling a maſs of melted metal.

Among the curioſities of Iceland, none are more worthy of attention than the hot ſpouting water-ſprings, with which this iſland abounds. The hot ſprings of Aix-la-chapelle, Carliſbad, Bath, and

Switzerland, and ſeveral others found in Italy, are conſidered as very remarkable; but, excepting in the laſt-mentioned country, the water no where becomes ſo hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown ſo high as the hot ſpouting water-ſprings in Iceland. All thoſe water-works that have been contrived with ſo much art, and at ſo enormous an expenſe, cannot by any means be compared with theſe. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greateſt among all the French water-works, caſt up a thin column eighty feet in the air; while ſome ſprings in Iceland ſpout columns of water, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, to the height, as many affirm, of ſeveral hundred feet. Theſe ſprings are of an unequal degree of heat. From ſome, the water flows gently as from other ſprings, and it is then called a bath: from others, boiling water ſpouts with great noiſe, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil ſays that he does not remember ever to have obſerved it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyſer, Rœynum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212 (the boiling heat); and in the laſt place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is very common for ſome of the ſpouting-ſprings to ceaſe, and others to riſe up in their ſtead. Frequent earthquakes, and ſubterranean noiſes, heard at the time, cauſe great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In ſeveral of theſe hot ſprings, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the fleſh is put in cold water, in the water of the ſpring. They alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become lukewarm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of theſe ſprings are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and they are likewiſe eſteemed very wholeſome when drank by the human ſpecies.

The largeſt of all the ſpouting-ſprings in Iceland is called Geyſer. It is about two days' journey from Heckla, and not far from Skallholt. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noiſe is heard, like the ruſhing of a torrent, precipitating itſelf from ſtupendous rocks. The water here ſpouts ſeveral times a-day, but always by ſtarts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it ſpouts to the height of ſixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at ſome times than at others; when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmoſt height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Baſaltine pillars are likewiſe very common in Iceland, which are ſuppoſed to have been produced by ſubterraneous fires. The lower ſort of people imagine theſe pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made uſe of ſupernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to ſeven ſides, and are from four to ſeven feet in thickneſs, and from twelve to ſixteen yards in length, without any horizontal diviſions. In ſome places they are only ſeen here and there among the lava in the mountains: but, in ſome other places, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immenſe maſſes of ice, by which, every year, great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms thickneſs, is ſeparated by the winds, and leſs dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often ſeen fifty and more feet above water, and is at leaſt nine times the ſame depth below water. Theſe prodigious maſſes of ice are frequently left in ſhoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that ſtate remain many months, nay, it is ſaid, even years, undiſſolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmoſphere for many miles round. When many ſuch lofty and bulky

maſſes of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them is ſo much chafed, and preſſed with ſuch violence together, that it takes fire; which circumſtance has occaſioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice cauſed ſo violent a cold in 1753, and 1754, that many horſes and ſheep were killed by it; and, through want of food, horſes were obſerved to feed upon dead cattle, and the ſheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the ſheep. The Icelanders attempt to deſtroy theſe intruders as ſoon as they get ſight of them: and ſometimes they aſſemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire-arms, they are obliged to make uſe of ſpears on theſe occaſions. The government encourages the natives to deſtroy theſe animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their ſkins are alſo purchaſed for the king, and are not allowed to be ſold to any other perſon.

It is extraordinary that trees do not thrive in Iceland; nay, there are very few to be found on the whole iſland, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parſley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or ſix gardens, which are ſaid to be all that are in the whole iſland.

TRADE.] The commerce of this iſland is monopoliſed by a Daniſh company. The ſoil upon the ſea-coaſt is tolerably good for paſture: and though there is not any conſiderable town in the whole iſland, the Icelanders have ſeveral frequented ports. Their exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen cloths, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of timber, fiſhing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a little ſilk, excluſive of ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no incitement for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

## THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS,

SO called from their lying in a cluſter, and the inhabitants ferrying from one iſland to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. N. lat. and 6 and 7 deg. W. long. from London. The ſpace of this cluſter extends about 60 miles in length and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the weſtward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000 or 5000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

## NORWAY.

Containing 158,400 ſquare miles, with leſs than 4 inhabitants to each.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT. } THE natural ſignification of Norway is, the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the weſt and north by the Northern Ocean; and on the eaſt is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Runfield, and Dourfield.

The reader may conſult the table of dimenſions in Denmark for its extent, which is not, however, well aſcertained.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its latitude, and its poſition toward the ſea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable. The eaſtern parts of Norway are commonly covered with ſnow; and the cold generally ſets in about the middle of October, and continues, with intenſe ſeverity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that time frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow, on the mountain which ſeparates Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different poſtures. But even froſt and ſnow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northern parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe, that they are but little known. At Bergen the longeſt day conſiſts of about 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt of about five. In ſummer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about midſummer, the ſun is continually in view. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half, owing to the reflection of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding, has been ſo kind to the Norwegians, that, in the midſt of their darkneſs, the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they carry on their fiſhery, and work at their ſeveral trades in the open air.

The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts, that it has been ſaid the inhabitants live ſo long as to be tired of life, and cauſe themſelves to be tranſported to a leſs ſalubrious air. Sudden thaws, and ſnow-falls, have, however, ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the moſt mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains, running from ſouth to north; to paſs one of which, called the Ardanger, a man muſt travel about ſeventy Engliſh miles; and to paſs others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is ſuppoſed to be the higheſt mountain, perhaps, in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which interſect thoſe dreadful precipices, and that are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expenſe of providing, at different ſtages, houſes accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vaſt chain, other immenſe mountains preſent themſelves all over Norway; ſome of them with reſervoirs of water on the top, and the whole forming a moſt ſurpriſing landſcape. The activity of the natives in recovering their ſheep and goats, when penned up, through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf. The caverns that are to be met with in thoſe mountains are more wonderful than thoſe, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though leſs liable to obſervation. One of them, called Dolſteen, was in 1750 viſited by two clergymen, who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs; but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its foreſts, which furniſh foreigners with maſts, beams, planks, and boards, and ſerve beſide

for all domeſtic uſes, particularly the conſtruction of houſes, bridges, ſhips, and for charcoal to the founderies. The timber growing here are fir, and pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, eel, or alder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the comol or ſloe-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden-tree, and willows The ſums which Norway receives for timber are very conſiderable; but the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers, and the ſituation of their lakes, which afford them not only the conveniency of floating down their timber, but that of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, of an incombuſtible nature, the thin fibres of which may be woven into cloth, and cleaned by burning, is likewiſe found here; as are cryſtals, granites, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Daniſh majeſty is now working, to great advantage, a ſilver mine at Koningsburgh; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen at the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen. Lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper mines at Roraas is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway likewiſe produces quickſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, and coal mines, vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and freſh water lakes in this country are well ſtocked with fiſh, and navigable for ſhips of conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs; and, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. In the year 1702, the noble family ſeat of Borge, near Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs a hundred fathoms in depth; and its ſcite was inſtantly filled with water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, FOWLS, AND FISHES. All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the marten, and the beaver. The elk is a tall aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and in the winter ſocial; and the fleſh of it taſtes like veniſon. The rein-deer is a ſpecies of ſtag; but we ſhall have occaſion to mention it more particularly hereafter. The hares are ſmall, and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs;

and ſome prefer bear hams to thoſe of Weſtphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are ſhy even of a cow or goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat kind, and have claws like tigers; they dig under ground, and often undermine ſheep-folds, where they make dreadful havoc. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwiſe called the ervan, or vielfras, reſembles a turn-ſpit dog, with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is ſo valuable, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve the ſkin unhurt: he is ſo bold and ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburdens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees; and that, when taken, he has been even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and its fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the marten and a large brown foreſt cat, only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We ſhall have occaſion to mention the beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The elks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is that of a large duck; they are an aquatic fowl, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. No fewer than 30 different kinds of thruſhes are found in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour; his eye reſembles that of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is ſo ſtrong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old. The ſea or fiſh-eagle is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on aquatic food, and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aërial inhabitants for the coaſt of Norway; and induſtry has produced a ſpecies of mankind peculiarly fitted for rendering them ſerviceable to the human race. Theſe are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the ſteepeſt rocks, and bring away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are parboiled in vinegar; the fleſh is ſometimes eaten by the peaſants, who generally reliſh it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern diſtricts, are trained up to be aſſiſtants to theſe birdmen in taking their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and ſeas are aſtoniſhingly fruitful in moſt kinds of fiſh that are found on the ſea-coaſts of Europe. Stock-fiſh innumerable are dried upon the rocks without ſalting. The haac-moren is a ſpecies of ſhark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three caſks of train oil. The tuella flynder is an exceſſively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who has fallen overboard, to keep him from riſing. The ſeaſon for herring-fiſhing is announced to the fiſhermen by the ſpouting of water from the whales while following the herring ſhoals. Of the whale ſeven ſpecies have been remarked: the

large whale reſembles a cod; has ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly; they ſpout on the water, which they take in by inſpira tion, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female ſometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe, from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, with ſharp horns, or rather bones, on their beak, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth, and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured, that he has beat himſelf to death on the rocks. The coaſt of Norway may be ſaid to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable ſhoals come from under the ice near the north pole, and, about the latitude of Iceland, divide themſelves into three bodies. One of theſe ſupplies the weſtern iſles and coaſts of Scotland; another directs its courſe round the eaſtern part of Great Britain, down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torſk fiſhes follow them, to feed upon their ſpawn, and are taken in prodigious numbers, in 50 or 60 fathoms water: theſe, eſpecially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and ſold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fiſhing on the coaſt of Norway. The ſea-devil is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea-ſcorpion is likewiſe of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

The fabulous ſea-monſters of antiquity are all equalled if not exceeded by the wonderful animals, which, according to ſome modern accounts, inhabit the Norwegian ſeas. Among theſe, the ſea-ſnake, or ſerpent of the ocean, is one of the moſt remarkable, and perhaps the beſt atteſted. In 1756, one of them, it is ſaid, was ſhot by a maſter of a ſhip; its head reſembled that of a horſe; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hung from its neck; it floated on the ſurface of the water, and held its head at leaſt two feet out of the ſea. Between the head and neck were ſeven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this ſnake was more than a hundred yards, ſome ſay, fathoms. They are ſaid to have a remarkable averſion to the ſmell of caſtor; for which reaſon, ſhip, boat, and bark maſters provide themſelves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overſet; the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquiſite. The particulars related of this animal, however incredible, have been atteſted upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) ſays, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-maſt of the ſhip; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; and that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. The body of this monſter is ſaid to be as thick as a hogſhead; his ſkin variegated like a tortoiſe-ſhell; and his excrement, which floats on the ſurface of the water, to be corroſive, and bliſter the hands of the ſeamen if they handle it.

The exiſtence of the kraken, or korken, is likewiſe ſtrongly aſſerted

it is ſaid to be a mile and a half in circumference; and that when part of it appears above the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks, on which fiſhes ſport, and ſea-weeds grow; upon his farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and ſize of a moderate maſt, appear; by the action and re-action of which he gathers his food, conſiſting of ſmall fiſhes. When he ſinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous ſwell of the ſea ſucceeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, we are told, a young kraken periſhed among the rocks and cliffs of the pariſh of Alſtahong; and his death was attended with ſuch a ſtench, that the channel where he died was impaſſable.

The mer-men and mer-women are likewiſe ſaid to have their reſidence in the Norwegian ſeas; but it is not eaſy to give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The mer-man is about eight ſpans long, and is deſcribed as bearing nearly the ſame reſemblance as an ape does to the human ſpecies. It has a high forehead, little eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth, without chin or ears; its arms are ſhort, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members reſembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane. The parts of generation indicate their ſexes; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like thoſe of fiſhes. The females have breaſts, at which they ſuckle their young ones.

Curiosities.] Thoſe of Norway are only natural. On the coaſt, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex or whirlpool, called by navigators the Navel of the Sea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Heſleggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moſkoe with a boiſterous rapidity; and at ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth or extent, ſo violent, that if a ſhip comes near it, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirl, and there diſappears, being abſorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks; and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a ſituation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of the whirlpool, of which the noiſe and turbulence, ſtill increaſing as it is approached, are an earneſt of quick and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of deſpair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impoſſible, and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs into which they are to be plunged, and daſhed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expreſſed the utmoſt terror when they found the ſtream irreſiſtible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they ſtruggle againſt it with all their might, howling and bellow-

ing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to ſwim to the iſland to prey upon the ſheep.

It was the opinion of Kircher, that the Maleſtrom is a ſea vortex, which attracts the flood under the ſhore of Norway, and diſcharges it again in the Gulf of Bothnia; but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the ſhattered fragments of whatever happens to be ſucked down by it. The large ſtems of firs and pines riſe again ſo ſhivered and ſplintered that the pieces look as if covered with briſtles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occaſioned by the contraction of the ſtream in its courſe between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY.] The Norwegians are a people of an intermediate character between the ſimplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more poliſhed manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have biſhops, as thoſe of Denmark, without temporal juriſdiction. Their viceroy, like his maſter, is abſolute: but the farmers and common people in Norway are much leſs oppreſſed than thoſe in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are ſtrong, robuſt, and brave; but quick in reſenting real or ſuppoſed injuries. The women are handſome and courteous; and the Norwegian modes of living greatly reſemble thoſe of the Saxon anceſtors of the preſent Engliſh. Every inhabitant is an artiſan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway there are few who are by profeſſion hatters, ſhoe-makers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, or joiners. The loweſt Norwegian peaſant is an artiſt and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary ſhifts for ſupplying the place of bread or farinaceous food. The middling Norwegians lead that kind of life which we may ſay is furniſhed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this middle ſtate prolongs their lives ſurpriſingly. Though their dreſs is in many reſpects accommodated to their climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any covering upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted paſt his labour; and, in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Fredericſhall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon, why he died? whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him? and other ſuch queſtions; frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended him.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what will be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rix-dollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers, for the ſervice of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000l.; and, till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his income, by the ſubſidies it drew from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We muſt refer to Denmark likewiſe for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we may believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe: their former character is no doubt to be aſcribed to the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with thoſe of Denmark.

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## DENMARK* PROPER, or JUTLAND, excluſive of the ISLANDS in the BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| | MILES. | | DEGREES. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length - - - - | 240† | between | 54 and 38 north latitude. |
| Breadth - - - - | 114 | | 8 and 11 eaſt longitude. |

Containing 15,744 ſquare miles, with 139 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac Sea, and from Sweden on the eaſt by the Sound; it is bounded on the ſouth by Germany and the Baltic; and the German Sea divides it from Great Britain on the weſt.

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts; the peninſula of Jutland, anciently called *Cherſoneſus Cimbrica*, and the iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that, though all theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, is in the iſland of Zealand.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of the largeſt and moſt fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occaſions. A great number of ſmall cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards tranſported into Holſtein, to be fed for the uſe of Hamburgh, Lubec, and Amſterdam. Jutland is every where interſperſed with hills, and on the eaſt ſide has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the weſt ſide being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the moſt part a ſandy ſoil, but rather fertile in grain and paſturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the ſurrounding ſea, than it is in many more ſoutherly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark, the winters are very ſevere, ſo that the inha-

* See Mallet's Denmark, p. 1, to 18, vol. v.

† Meaning where longeſt and broadeſt,—a method which the author has every-where obſerved; and it ſeems to be the practice of other writers on the ſubject. Great allowances muſt therefore be made in moſt countries, as the readers will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for inſtance, is 114 miles where broadeſt, though in ſundry other parts it is not 50.

bitants often paſs arms of the ſea in ſledges upon the ice; and during the winter all the harbours are frozen up.

The greateſt part of the lands in Denmark and Holſtein are fiefs; and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained ſuch power over the farmers, and thoſe who reſided upon their eſtates, that at length they reduced them to a ſtate of extreme ſlavery, ſo that they were bought and ſold with their lands, and were eſteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders of Sleſwick and Holſtein have the power of life and death. The ſituation of the farmers has, indeed, been made ſomewhat more agreeable by ſome modern edicts; but they are ſtill, if ſuch an expreſſion may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are diſpoſed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark or Holſtein happens to be an induſtrious man, and is ſituated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate advantageouſly, as ſoon as he has performed the toilſome taſk, and expects to reap the profits of what he has ſown, his landlord, under pretence of taking it into his own hands, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he ſhould perform the ſame laborious taſk there, without any other emolument than what he may think proper to give him. This has been ſo long the practice in this country, that it neceſſarily throws the greateſt damp upon the efforts of induſtry, and prevents thoſe improvements in agriculture which would otherwiſe be introduced: the conſequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a ſtate of great poverty. But if the farmers had a ſecurity for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at preſent, and a much greater number of people ſupported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horſes, both for the ſaddle and carriage; about 5000 are ſold annually out of the country, and of the horned cattle, 30,000. Beſides numbers of black cattle, they have ſheep, hogs, and game; and the ſea coaſts are generally well ſupplied with fiſh.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] By an actual enumeration made, in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt in Weſtphalia, they were ſaid to amount to 2,444,000 ſouls, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The moſt accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struenſee; by which,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Jutland numbered - - | 358,136 | Iceland - - - - - - | 46,201 |
| Zealand - - - - - - | 283,460 | Duchy of Sleſwick - - | 243,605 |
| Funen - - - - - - - | 143,988 | Duchy of Holſtein - - | 134,665 |
| Norway - - - - - - | 723,141 | Oldenburgh - - - - | 62,854 |
| Iſlands of Ferro - - - | 4,754 | Delmenhorſt - - - - | 16,217 |
| | | Sum total | 2,017,027 |

Several of the ſmaller iſlands included in the diſtrict of Fionia, which may contain a few thouſands, are omitted in this computation.

However diſproportioned this number may ſeem to the extent of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, yet, every thing conſidered, it is far greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated ſtate of his poſſeſſions. But the trade of Denmark has been ſo ſhackled by the corruption and arbitrary proceedings of its miniſters, and the merchants are ſo terrified by the deſpotiſm of the government, that this kingdom, which

might be rendered rich and flouriſhing, is at preſent one of the moſt indigent and diſtreſſed ſtates in Europe; and theſe circumſtances prevent Denmark from being ſo populous as it otherwiſe would be, were the adminiſtration of government more mild and equitable, and proper encouragement given to foreigners, and to thoſe who engage in agricultural and other arts.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark poſſeſſed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity; but, by a continual ſeries of tyranny and oppreſſion, their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterpriſing, and warlike people, they are become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehenſion. They value themſelves extremely upon thoſe titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and ſhow. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dreſs, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contraſt of that nation. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who begin now to viſit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

Religion.] The religion of Denmark is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into ſix dioceſes: one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; beſides four in Norway, and two in Iceland. Theſe dioceſes are governed by biſhops, whoſe duty it is to ſuperintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre eminency than a diſtinction in their eccleſiaſtical dreſs; for they have neither cathedrals nor eccleſiaſtical courts, nor the ſmalleſt concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are ſo good, that they are revered by the people. They are paid by the ſtate, the church lands having been appropriated to the government at the reformation.

Language and learning.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are ſpoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the Engliſh, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a neceſſary part of education. A company of Engliſh comedians occaſionally viſit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement.

The univerſity of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous ſupport of 328 ſtudents: theſe funds are ſaid to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars. But the Danes in general have made no great figure in literature; though aſtronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines: and the Round Tower and Chriſtian's Haven diſplay the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus. They begin now, however, to make ſome promiſing attempts in hiſtory, poetry, and the drama. But it appears, that, in general, literature receives very little countenance or encouragement in Denmark; which may be conſidered as the principal cauſe of its being ſo little cultivated by the Danes.

Cities and chief buildings.] Copenhagen, which is ſituated on the fine iſland of Zealand, was originally a ſettlement of ſailors, and firſt founded by ſome wandering fiſhermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a diſtance. It is very ſtrong, and defended by four royal caſtles or forts. It contains ten pariſh churches, beſides nine others belonging to the Calviniſts and other perſuaſions, and ſome hoſpitals. Copenhagen is adorned by ſome public and private palaces, as they are called. Its ſtreets are 186 in number: and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houſes in the principal ſtreets are built of brick, and thoſe in the lanes chiefly of timber. Its

univerſity has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits only one ſhip to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the ſtreets have canals, and quays for ſhips to lie cloſe to the houſes; and its naval arſenal is ſaid to exceed that of Venice. The road for ſhipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. Yet, notwithſtanding all theſe advantages, there is little appearance of induſtry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the fineſt ports in the world, cannot boaſt of its commerce. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or ſea ſervice; and the number of forces kept up is much too large for this little kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great ſafety. Indeed, it is uſually almoſt as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village.

The royal palace of Chriſtiansburg, one of the moſt commodious and moſt ſumptuouſly furniſhed in Europe, was built in the reign of Chriſtian VI. and is ſaid to have coſt, in building only, conſiderably above a million ſterling; but this palace was reduced to a heap of aſhes by a dreadful fire, which happened on the 26th of February 1794. The royal library, which ſtood detached from the principal pile, and contained between two and three hundred thouſand volumes, was, however, fortunately preſerved. The fineſt palace belonging to his Daniſh majeſty lies about twenty Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericsburgh. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like moſt of the ancient reſidences of princes, for defence againſt an enemy. It was built by Chriſtian IV. and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic ſtyles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuſcan and Doric pillars; and on the ſummit of the building are ſpires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very ſplendid, though furniſhed in the antique taſte. The knights' hall is of great length. The tapeſtry repreſents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a moſt minute and laboured performance in ſculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of ſilver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even beſieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithſtanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. About two miles from Elſineur is another ſmall royal palace, flat roofed, with twelve windows in front, ſaid to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is ſhown the very ſpot where, according to tradition, that prince was poiſoned.

Jagersburg is a park which contains a royal country ſeat, called the Hermitage, remarkable for the diſpoſition of its apartments and the quaintneſs of its furniture, particularly a machine which conveys the diſhes to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory. The chief eccleſiaſtical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roſchild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments ſtill remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered paſſage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

Elſineur is well built, contains 5000 inhabitants, and, with reſpect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is ſtrongly fortified on the land ſide, and towards the ſea is defended by a ſtrong fort, con-

taining ſeveral batteries of long cannon. Here all veſſels pay a toll, and, in paſſing, lower their top-ſails.

COMMERCE.] Denmark is extremely well ſituated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ſhips of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Daniſh majeſty alſo ſupply a great variety of timber and other materials for ſhip-building; and ſome of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among theſe, beſide fir and other timber, are black cattle, horſes, butter, ſtock-fiſh, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Daniſh dominions, are conſequently ranked under the head of exports. To theſe we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are, ſalt, wine, brandy, and ſilk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had great intercourſe with England, and from thence they import broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England; but nothing ſhows the commercial ſpirit of the Danes in a more favourable light than their eſtabliſhments in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

In 1612, Chriſtian IV. of Denmark eſtabliſhed an Eaſt India company at Copenhagen: and ſoon after four ſhips ſailed from thence to the Eaſt Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſty by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and, in 1617, they built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort invited numbers of them to ſettle here; ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt India company were ſoon rich enough to pay their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620 endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice trade at Ceylon, but were defeated by the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with the native Indians on all hands: and had it not been for the generous aſſiſtance given them by Mr. Pitt, an Engliſh Eaſt India governor, the ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjore. Upon the cloſe of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh Eaſt India company found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription for enlarging their ancient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Daniſh majeſty granted a new charter to his Eaſt India company, with vaſt privileges; and for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. The Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the ſmall iſland of St. John, in the Weſt Indies, which are free ports, and notorious for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg on the coaſt of Guinea. They alſo carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of theſe than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a numerous collection of both. It contains ſeveral good paintings, and a fine collection of coins, particularly thoſe of the conſuls in the time of the Roman republic, and of the emperors after the ſeat of empire was divided into the Eaſt and Weſt. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet

of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind, here are to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; the one of gold, the other of ſilver, and both of the form of a hunting horn; that of gold ſeems to be of pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, it probably was made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half, and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; they ſay it was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtian I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. Several veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the north of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments, ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals, ancient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, which is ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburg and Sleſwick, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, the anceſtors of the greater part of the modern Engliſh.

Perhaps, however, the greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are thoſe ancient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and hiſtorians, and are generally thought to exhibit the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, or waxen tablets, were known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo Grammaticus, has given ſpecimens of ſeveral of theſe inſcriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS. The ancient conſtitution of Denmark was originally much the ſame with that of other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the ſenate, where he preſided, was inveſted with the executive power. He likewiſe commanded the army, and decided finally all the diſputes which aroſe between his ſubjects. The legiſlative power, together with the right of election of the king, was veſted in the ſtates, who were compoſed, firſt, of the order of nobility, and ſecondly, of that of the citizens and farmers. After the Chriſtian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were alſo admitted, not only to be an order of the ſtates, but to have ſeats likewiſe in the ſenate. Theſe orders had their reſpective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other. The crown had alſo its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue ariſing out of lands which were appropriated to its ſupport. This conſtitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjuſted; ſo that the nobles very ſoon aſſumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppreſſed the people, as the national aſſemblies were not regularly held to redreſs their grievances; and when the Roman-catholic clergy came to have a ſhare in the civil government, they far ſurpaſſed the nobility in pride and ambition. The repreſentatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppreſs and tyraniſe over the people. Chriſtian the Second, by endeavour-

ing in an imprudent manner to ſtem the torrent of their oppreſſion, loſt his crown and his liberty; but Chriſtian the Third, by uniting himſelf with the nobles and the ſenate, deſtroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppreſſion of the common people by the nobility ſtill remained. At length, in the reign of Frederic the Third, the people, inſtead of exerting themſelves to remedy the defects of the conſtitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were ſo infatuated as to make the king deſpotic, in hopes to render themſelves leſs ſubject to the tyranny of the nobility. A ſeries of unſucceſsful wars had brought the nation in general into ſo wretched a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The diſpute came to a ſhort queſtion, which was, that the nobles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people upon this threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppreſſions of the intermediate order of nobility; and in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg reminded the people that the commons were no more than *ſlaves* to the lords.

This was the watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, the ſpeaker of the commons, exclaimed at the term *ſlavery*; the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices, and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The biſhop of Copenhagen officiated as ſpeaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, thus ſurpriſed, were compelled reluctantly to ſubmit.

On the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, ſigned each a ſeparate act, by which they conſented that the crown ſhould be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and inveſted the king with abſolute power, giving him the right to regulate the ſucceſſion, and the regency, in caſe of a minority. This renunciation of their right, ſubſcribed by the firſt nobility, is ſtill preſerved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark diveſted the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve thoſe poor people who had been the inſtruments of inveſting him with the ſovereign power, but left them in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the preſent age. The king united in his perſon all the rights of ſovereign power; but as he could not exerciſe all by himſelf, he was obliged to intruſt ſome part of the executive power to his ſubjects. The ſupreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal preſident. What they call the German provinces have likewiſe their ſupreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holſtein, is holden at Gluckſtadt; and for the duchy of Sleſwick, in the town of that name.

In affairs of importance, the king for the moſt part decides in his council, the members of which are named and diſplaced at his will. In this council, the laws are propoſed, diſcuſſed, and receive the ſanction of the royal authority, and all great changes or eſtabliſhments are propoſed,

and approved or rejected by the king. Here likewiſe, or in the cabinet, he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extenſion, or reſtriction, and upon all the moſt important affairs of ſtate.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is ſuppoſed to be preſent to adminiſter juſtice in his ſupreme court; and, therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preſide nominally in the ſovereign court of juſtice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always addreſs their diſcourſes in pleading, as do the judges in delivering their opinion. Every year the king is preſent at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges ſuch inſtructions as he thinks proper. The deciſion of theſe judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal ſentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is ſigned by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the adminiſtration of juſtice in Denmark: but, notwithſtanding this, it is ſo far from being diſtributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can ſcarcely ever have juſtice in this country againſt one of the nobility, or againſt one who is favoured by the court. If the laws are ſo clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are aſhamed to decide againſt them, the latter, through the favour of the miniſter, obtains an order from the king to ſtop all the law proceedings, or a diſpenſation from obſerving particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Denmark was publiſhed by Chriſtian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have ſince been publiſhed, and is nearly the ſame with that publiſhed in Norway. Theſe laws are very juſt and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial conſequences to the people. But as the king can alter and diſpenſe with the laws as he pleaſes, and ſupport his miniſters and favourites in any acts of violence and injuſtice, the people of Denmark are ſubject to great tyranny and oppreſſion, and have abundant reaſon to regret the tameneſs and ſervility with which their liberties were, in 1660, ſurrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

From that period, the peaſants, till 1787, had been in a ſituation little better than the brute creation; they ſcarcely could be ſaid to poſſeſs any loco-motive power, ſince they had no liberty to leave one eſtate, and to ſettle on another, without purchaſing permiſſion from their maſters; and if they chanced to move without that permiſſion, they were claimed as ſtrayed cattle. Such was the ſtate of thoſe wretched beings, who, at beſt, only might be ſaid to vegetate. Theſe chains of feudal ſlavery were then broken, through the intereſt of his royal highneſs, the prince and heir apparent to the crown; and the priſoners, for ſuch they certainly might be called, were declared free. Notwithſtanding the remonſtrances, which were made againſt this by the landed gentry, were very numerous, yet, after a minute examination of the whole, an edict was iſſued which reſtores the peaſants to their long-loſt liberty. A number of grievances, under which the peaſantry laboured, were likewiſe aboliſhed at the ſame time.

Punishments.] The common methods of execution in Denmark are beheading and hanging: in ſome caſes, as an aggravation of the puniſhment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the ſentence is executed. For the moſt atrocious crimes, ſuch as the murder of a father or mother, huſband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital puniſhments are not common in Denmark; and the other principal modes of puniſh-

ment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the raſp-houſe, to houſes of correction, and to public labour and impriſonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL HISTORY OF DENMARK. After the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, his court ſeemed for ſome time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, obſerved a moſt reſpectable neutrality during the late war, but never could get rid of French influence, notwithſtanding his connexions with Great-Britain. The ſubſidies he received maintained his army: but his family diſputes with Ruſſia concerning Holſtein, and the aſcendency with the French had obtained over the Swedes (not to mention many other matters), did not ſuffer him to act that deciſive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his ſituation, eſpecially about the time when the treaty of Cloſter-Seven was concluded. His preſent Daniſh majeſty's plan ſeemed, ſoon after his acceſſion, to be that of forming his dominions into a ſtate of independency, by availing himſelf of their natural advantages. But ſundry events which have ſince happened, and the general feebleneſs of his adminiſtration, have prevented any farther expectations being formed, that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at leaſt in any great degree, during the preſent reign.

With regard to the external intereſts of Denmark, they are certainly beſt ſecured by cultivating a friendſhip with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enabled her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and ſhe has been particularly courted by the Mahometan ſtates, on account of her naval ſtores.

The preſent imperial family of Ruſſia has many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holſtein; but there is at preſent ſmall appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by ſo enterpriſing a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repoſſeſs themſelves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greateſt danger that can ariſe to Denmark from a foreign power is when the Baltic ſea (as has happened more than once) is ſo frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which caſe the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conqueſt of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Daniſh majeſty's revenues have three ſources: the impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, alſo raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expenſes of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, becauſe they may be abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms and tolls, upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtrait of half a mile between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip, and value of the cargo exhibited in the bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch, being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expenſes of the light-houſes on the coaſt; and the Swedes, who command

the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time refuſed to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majeſty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as are paid by the ſubjects of Great-Britain and the Netherlands. The firſt treaty relative to it was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his ſubjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elſineur, a town ſituated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and about 18 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elſineur, amounts at preſent to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000 l. ſterling yearly.

The following is a liſt of the king's revenues, excluſive of his private eſtates:

| | Rix-dollars at 4s. each. |
|---|---|
| Tribute of hard corn, or land-tax | 1,000,000 |
| Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, exciſe, marriages, &c. | 950,000 |
| Cuſtom-houſe duties | 154,000 |
| Duties of the Sound | 200,000 |
| Duties of Jutland, from ſalt-pits | 27,000 |
| Tithes and poll-tax of Norway | 770,000 |
| Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Chriſtianſand, and Chriſtiana | 160,000 |
| Other tolls | 552,000 |
| Revenue from mines | 300,000 |
| Revenue from Sleſwick, Holſtein, Oldenburg, and Delmenhorſt | 690,000 |
| Taxes on acorns and maſt from beech | 20,000 |
| Tolls on the Weſer | 7,500 |
| Poſt-office | 70,000 |
| Farms of Iceland and Ferro | 35,000 |
| Farms of Bornholm | 14,800 |
| Oyſter Fiſhery | 22,000 |
| Stamp-paper | 40,000 |
| Sum total, | 5,012,300 |
| In Engliſh money, £. | 1,002,460 |

By a liſt of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to Engliſh money £. 454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of the people in martial affairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops, which they kept up with a vaſt care. The preſent military force of Denmark conſiſts of 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greateſt part of which is a militia who receive no pay, but are regiſtered on the army-liſt, and every Sunday exerciſed. The regular troops are about 20,000, and moſtly foreigners, or officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to truſt his ſecurity in the hands of thoſe he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown; great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money. The preſent fleet of Denmark is compoſed of 36 ſhips of the line, and 18 frigates;

but many of the ſhips being old, and wanting great repairs, it is ſuppoſed they cannot fit out more than 25 ſhips on the greateſt emergency. This fleet is generally ſtationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, ſtore-houſes, and all the materials neceſſary for the uſe of the marine. They have 26,000 regiſtered ſeamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor ſerve on board a merchantman without permiſſion from the admiralty; 4000 of theſe are kept in conſtant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, ſcarcely amounts to nine ſhillings per month; but they have a ſort of uniform, with ſome proviſions and lodging allowed for themſelves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] Theſe are two; that of the *Elephant*, and that of *Daneburg*. The former was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. in the year 1478, and is deemed the moſt honourable; its badge is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle, ſet in diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-blue watered ribbond, worn, like the George in England, over the right ſhoulder; the number of its members, beſides the ſovereign, are thirty, and the knights of it are addreſſed by the title of Excellency. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is ſaid to have been inſtituted in the year 1219, and, after being long obſolete, revived in 1671 by Chriſtian V. conſiſt of a white ribbond with red edges, worn ſcarf-wiſe over the right ſhoulder; from which depends a ſmall croſs of diamonds, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto, *Pietate et Juſtitia*. The badge is a croſs pattee enamelled white, on the centre the letter C and 5 crowned with a regal crown, and this motto, *Reſtitutor*. The number of knights is not limited; and they are very numerous.

HISTORY.] We owe the chief hiſtory of Denmark to a very extraordinary phenomenon; the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was loſt in all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other hiſtorians of his age, had adopted, and at the ſame time ennobled by his ſtyle, the moſt ridiculous abſurdities of remote antiquity. We can however collect enough from him to conclude that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Iriſh, and other northern nations, had their bards, who recounted the military achievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden), were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia* or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the firſt Chriſtian Daniſh king is uncertain; and thoſe of the people of theſe countries are ſo blended together, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the old Scandinavian hiſtory. This undoubtedly was owing to the remains of their Scythian cuſtoms, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of ſeveral nations or ſepts joining together in expeditions by ſea or land, and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and

* By Scythia may be underſtood all thoſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians, and Tartars; ſee the Introduction), whoſe inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued, ſo late as the 13th century, to iſſue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more ſouthern and fertile kingdoms of Europe. Hence, by ſir William Temple and other hiſtorians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouſe of Europe.*

Normans, were promiſcuouſly uſed long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the ſhort revival of literature under that prince throws very little light upon the Daniſh hiſtory. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial; that, ſo far back as the year of Chriſt 500, they inſulted all the ſea-coaſts of Europe; that they ſettled in Ireland, where they built ſtone houſes; and that they became maſters of England, and ſome part of Scotland; both which kingdoms ſtill retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the hiſtory of Denmark and that of England, under the Daniſh princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint reſemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themſelves the ſuperiority over the Engliſh.

In the eleventh century, under Canute the Great, Denmark may be ſaid to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give ſanction to the expreſſion. Few very intereſting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted the throne; and, partly by her addreſs, and partly by hereditary right, formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with ſuch firmneſs and courage, that ſhe was juſtly ſtyled the Semiramis of the North. Her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one ſovereign, loſt its effect; but Norway ſtill continued annexed to Denmark. In the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Chriſtian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended.

In 1513, Chriſtian II. one of the greateſt tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. gave a full looſe to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden for the bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holſtein, was unanimouſly called to the throne, on the depoſition of his cruel nephew. He embraced the opinions of Luther; and about the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark by that wiſe and politic prince, Chriſtian III.

Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was choſen for the head of the proteſtant league formed againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but, though brave in his own perſon, he was in danger of loſing his dominions; when he was ſucceeded in that command by Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Chriſtian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his ſon Frederic III. conſented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, perſuaded him to declare war againſt Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden; which had almoſt coſt him his crown in 1657. Charles ſtormed the fortreſs of Fredericſtadt; and in the ſucceeding winter marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh troops, took Odenſee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to beſiege Copenhagen itſelf. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interpoſed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roſchild, by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Schonen, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic ſought to elude theſe ſevere terms: but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land.

The ſteady intrepid conduct of Frederic under theſe misfortunes endeared him to his ſubjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swediſh fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who ſhowed on every occaſion great abilities, both civil and military; and, having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital, by which the iſland of Bornholm was reſtored to the Danes; but the iſland of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic under the moſt imminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became abſolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was ſucceeded, in 1670, by his ſon Chriſtian V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen: but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war, which Chriſtian obſtinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landſcroon: and having almoſt exhauſted his dominions in military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to ſign a treaty, on the terms preſcribed by France, in 1679. Chriſtian afterwards became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains, and, after a vaſt variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, died in 1690. He was ſucceeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions upon Holſtein, and probably muſt have become maſter of that duchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother-in-law the duke of Holſtein. Charles probably would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates, and afterwards took a very active part againſt the French in the wars of Queen Anne.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon Swediſh Pomerania, and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadeſbuch, and his favourite city of Altena was laid in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf by ſeiſing great part of Ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general, count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Tonningen and Stralſund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wiſmar in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he was aiming at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark with the moſt implacable violence; but, on the death of that prince, who was

killed at the ſiege of Fredericſhall, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden: in conſequence of which, a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having, two years before, ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes by an accidental fire. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Chriſtian Frederic, or Chriſtian VI. made the beſt uſe of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, by cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and promoting the happineſs of his ſubjects, whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction *, Chriſtian ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburgers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. In 1738, he had a diſpute with his Britannic majeſty about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holſtein-Lawenburg, and which Chriſtian ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt, in which Chriſtian, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himſelf of his Britannic majeſty's predilection for his German dominions; for the latter agreed to pay Chriſtian a ſubſidy of 70,000l. ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover. This was a gainful bargain for Denmark. Two years after, he ſeiſed ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtian had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to the crown of Sweden. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken; but whatever Chriſtian's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of ſeeing all Scandinavia ſubject to one family. Chriſtian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty George II. He improved upon his father's plan for the happineſs of his people, and took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. It was by his intervention that the treaty of Cloſter-Seven was concluded between his royal highneſs the late duke of Cumberland and the French general Richelieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His ſon, Chriſtian VII. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his preſent Britannic majeſty's youngeſt ſiſter, the princeſs Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at firſt a very promiſing appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the preſent king, who has a ſon named Frederic, and whom ſhe is repreſented as deſirous of raiſing to the throne. When the princeſs Carolina-Ma-

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to ſupport the houſe of Auſtria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male iſſue.

tilda came to Copenhagen, ſhe received her with all the appearance of friendſhip and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the ſame time telling her that ſhe would take every opportunity, as a mother, to aſſiſt her in reclaiming him. By this conduct ſhe became the depoſitory of all the young queen's ſecrets, whilſt at the ſame time it is ſaid ſhe placed people about the king, to keep him conſtantly engaged in all kinds of riot and debauchery, to which ſhe knew he was naturally too much inclined; and at length it was ſo ordered, that a miſtreſs was thrown in the king's way, whom he was perſuaded to keep in his palace. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager uſed frequently to viſit the young queen Matilda, and, under the maſk of friendſhip and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and exceſſes which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often perſuaded her not to live with him. But as ſoon as the king returned, the queen reproaching him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately endeavoured to perſuade the king to give no ear to her counſels, as it was preſumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Queen Matilda now began to diſcover the deſigns of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen alſo now aſſumed to herſelf the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with in the management of public affairs. This irritated the old queen; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied with ſchemes of revenge, which ſhe at length found means to gratify in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was obſerved that Brandt and Struenſee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a miniſter; and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were ſupported by her. This opened a new ſcene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the diſcarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and ſhe became the head and patroneſs of the party. Old count Molke, an artful diſplaced ſtateſman, and others who were well verſed in intrigues of this nature, perceiving that they had inexperienced young perſons to contend with, who, though they might mean well, had not ſufficient knowledge and capacity to conduct the public affairs, very ſoon predicted their ruin. Struenſee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the adminiſtration of public affairs at once, which ſhould have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies, among thoſe whoſe intereſt it was that things ſhould continue upon the former footing. After this, queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter; but as ſoon as the queen-dowager ſaw her, ſhe immediately turned back, and, with a malicious ſmile, declared that the child had all the features of Struenſee: on which her friends publiſhed it among the people, that the queen muſt have had an intrigue with Struenſee; which was corroborated by the queen's often ſpeaking with this miniſter in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated againſt the reigning queen; and another report was alſo induſtriouſly ſpread, that the governing party had formed a deſign to ſuperſede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her ſon; and that Struenſee was to be her prime-miniſter. Whatever Struenſee did to reform the abuſes of the late miniſtry was repreſented to the people as ſo many attacks upon, and attempts to deſtroy, the government of the kingdom. By ſuch means the people began to be greatly incenſed againſt this miniſter: and as he alſo attempted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were ſome of the crea-

tures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make their inferior officers believe that it was the deſign of Struenſee to change the whole ſyſtem of government. It muſt be admitted that this miniſter ſeems in many reſpects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his paſſions; his principles alſo appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends, upon the meaſures proper to be taken for effectuating their deſigns: and it was at length reſolved to ſurpriſe the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to ſign an order, which was to be prepared in readineſs, for committing the perſons before mentioned to ſeparate priſons, to accuſe them of high treaſon in general, and in particular of a deſign to poiſon or dethrone the king; and if that could not be properly ſupported, by torture or otherwiſe, to procure witneſſes to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struenſee. This was an undertaking of ſo hazardous a nature, that the wary count Molke, and moſt of the queen-dowager's friends, who had any thing to loſe, drew back, endeavouring to animate others, but excuſing themſelves from taking any open and active part in this affair. However, the queen-dowager at laſt procured a ſufficient number of active inſtruments for the execution of her deſigns. On the 16th of January, 1772, a maſked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady, and counſellor Struenſee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as uſual one country-dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struenſee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the ſame morning, prince Frederic, who had alſo been at the ball, went with the queen-dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichſtedt, and count Rantzau. They ordered his majeſty's valet de-chambre to awake him, and, in the midſt of the ſurpriſe and alarm that this unexpected intruſion excited, informed him that queen Matilda and the two Struenſees were at that inſtant buſy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately after compel him to ſign; and that the only means he could uſe to prevent ſo imminent a danger was to ſign thoſe orders, without loſs of time, which they had brought with them, for arreſting the queen and her accomplices. It is ſaid that the king was not eaſily prevailed upon to ſign theſe orders; but at length complied, though with reluctance and heſitation. Count Rantzau, and three officers, were diſpatched at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arreſted her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, in which ſhe was conveyed to the caſtle of Cronenburg, together with the infant princeſs, attended by lady Moſtyn, and eſcorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struenſee and Brandt were alſo ſeiſed in their beds, and impriſoned in the citadel. Struenſee's brother, ſome of his adherents, and moſt of the members of the late adminiſtration, were ſeiſed the ſame night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this ſeemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her ſon, ſupported and aſſiſted by thoſe who had the principal ſhare in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more a pageant, whoſe perſon and name it was neceſſary occaſionally to make uſe of. All the officers concerned in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almoſt total change took place in all the departments of adminiſtration. A new council was appointed, in which

prince Frederic preſided, and a commiſſion of eight members, to examine the papers of the priſoners, and to commence a proceſs againſt them. The ſon of queen Matilda, the prince royal, who was entered into the fifth year of his age, was put under the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governeſs, under the ſuperintendency of the queen-dowager. Struenſee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorouſly treated in priſon: they both underwent long and frequent examinations, and at length received ſentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previouſly cut off: but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards ſet at liberty. Struenſee at firſt abſolutely denied having any criminal intercourſe with the queen: but this he afterwards confeſſed: and though he is ſaid by ſome to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this reſpect were eſteemed notorious, and his confeſſions full and explicit. In May, his Britannic majeſty ſent a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips to convey that princeſs to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future reſidence. She died there of a malignant fever, on the 10th of May, 1775, aged 23 years and 10 months.

In 1780, his Daniſh majeſty acceded to the armed neutrality propoſed by the empreſs of Ruſſia. He appears at preſent to have ſuch a debility of underſtanding as to diſqualify him for the proper management of public affairs. On the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auſpices of the prince-royal, ſome of the former old members reſtored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any inſtrument, unleſs ſigned by the king, and counterſigned by the prince-royal.

The conduct of this prince is ſtamped with that conſiſtency of behaviour which enables him to purſue, with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent meaſures which he has planned for the benefit of his grateful country. The reſtoration of the peaſantry to their long-loſt liberty, and the abolition of many grievances under which they labour-ed, have already been mentioned. To theſe may be added the exertions he makes for the general diffuſion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to ſocieties of learning, arts, and ſcience; the excellent meaſures he has adopted for the ſuppreſſion of beggars, with whom the country was overrun, and the encouragement of induſtry, by the moſt extenſive inquiries into the ſtate of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wiſe regulations he has introduced into the corn trade, equally beneficial to the landed intereſt and to the poor; and the judicious laws, which under his influence have been made to encourage foreigners to ſettle in Iceland. The princeſs of Heſſe-Caſſel, his conſort, is ſaid to poſſeſs the moſt amiable diſpoſitions and goodneſs of heart.

Count Schimmelmann, miniſter of ſtate, finances, and commerce, has the merit of accompliſhing the abolition of the ſlave-trade among the ſubjects of Denmark. His plan was approved by the king on the 22d of February, 1792, and is to be gradual: and in 1803 all trade in negroes is to ceaſe on the part of Daniſh ſubjects. The diſintereſtedneſs of this miniſter, who poſſeſſes large eſtates in the Daniſh Weſt-India iſlands, recommends his exertions to greater praiſe. The above ordinance does not ſeem to have cauſed any diſcontent in Denmark among the Weſt-India merchants, and it is not thought it will cauſe any in the iſlands.

A ſcheme for defraying the national debt has been ſuggeſted and followed. One million has already been diſcharged.

Denmark, to its honour, formally refuſed to join in the alliance of potentates againſt France.

Chriſtian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F.R.S. was born in 1749; in 1766 he was married to the princeſs Carolina-Matilda of England; and has iſſue,—1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, and married in 1790, to the princeſs Mary-Anne-Frederica, of Heſſe.—2. Louiſa-Auguſta, princeſs-royal, born July 7, 1771, and married May 27, 1786, to Frederic, prince of Slefwick-Holſtein, by whom ſhe has iſſue:

Brothers and ſiſters to the king.—1. Sophia Magdalene, born July 3, 1746; married to the late king of Sweden, Guſtavus III.—2. Wilhelmina, born July 10, 1747; married Sept. 1, 1764, William, the preſent prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.—3. Louiſa, born Jan. 30, 1750; married Aug. 30, 1766, Charles, brother to the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.—4. Frederic, born Oct. 28, 1753.

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## His Danish Majesty's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empreſs of Ruſſia (termed Ducal Holſtein), the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubec; but on the 16th of November, 1773, Ducal Holſtein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial ſovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holſtein Gottorp is joint ſovereign of great part of it, with the Daniſh monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holſtein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well-built town and fortreſs, but in a marſhy ſituation, on the right of the Elbe, and has ſome foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handſome town, of great traffic, is commodiouſly ſituated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built in that ſituation, that it might ſhare in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt-India company, the merchants alſo enjoying liberty of conſcience, great numbers flocked to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg itſelf.

The famous city of Hamburg is ſituated on the verge of that part of Holſtein called Stormar; but is an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city. It has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe: and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants is ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it contains a variety of noble edifices, both public and private. It has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town; and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburg has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with which it carries on a conſiderable trade which has been very greatly increaſed in conſequence of the war with France and Holland. The Hamburgers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, once the capital of the

Hanſe towns, and ſtill a rich and populous place, is alſo in this duchy. It is governed by its own magiſtrates. It has 20 pariſh-churches, beſides a large cathedral. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of the whole duchy.

In WESTPHALIA, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt, containing about two thouſand ſquare miles; they lie on the ſouth ſide of the Weſer; their capitals have the ſame name; the firſt has the remains of a fortification, and the laſt is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the firſt royal anceſtor of his preſent Daniſh majeſty. The country abounds with marſhes and heaths; its horſes are the beſt in Germany.

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## LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, require that it ſhould be treated of under a diſtinct head, and in the ſame method obſerved with reſpect to other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME. The whole country of Lapland extends, ſo far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71° 30′ N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the moſt valuable; and ſome parts in the eaſt to the Ruſſians. The dimenſions of each of theſe parts are by no means accurately aſcertained. An eſtimate of that belonging to the Swedes may be ſeen in the table of dimenſions given in the account of Sweden; but other accounts ſay that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth: it comprehends all the country from the Baltic to the mountains that ſeparate Norway from Sweden. The Ruſſian part lies towards the eaſt, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Thoſe parts, notwithſtanding the rudeneſs of the country, are divided into ſmaller diſtricts, generally taking their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which is ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regular government. Swediſh Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought that the Laplanders are the deſcendents of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which ſignifies exiles. The reader, from what has been ſaid in the Introduction, may eaſily conceive, that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſets; and during winter it never riſes; but the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight and the aurora-borealis, that they never diſcontinue their work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In winter it is no unuſual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and, in ſome thermometers, ſpirits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place; and then the froſt that ſucceeds preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftneſs. The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; and the cataracts which daſh from the mountains often preſent to the eye the moſt picturesque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS. Lapland is a vaſt maſs of mountains, irregularly crowded together;

they are, however, in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations, and are believed by the natives to have been the terreſtrial paradiſe: even roſes and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; though this is but a ſhort gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, and noiſome unhealthy moraſſes, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of iron, copper, and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful cryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurpriſingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewiſe beeen ſometimes found in the rivers, but never in the ſeas.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. } We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as the animals are common to all the three countries. The *zibelin*, a creature reſembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its ſkin, whether black or white, is highly eſteemed. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the moſt remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*, which nature ſeems to have provided to recompenſe the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All who have deſcribed this animal have taken notice of the crackling noiſe that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their ſeparating and afterwards bringing together the diviſions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the ſame manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery briſtles, which is almoſt the only bird that can endure the rigour of the climate. The hoof however is not only thus protected; the ſame neceſſity which obliges the Laplanders to uſe ſnow ſhoes makes the extraordinary width of the rein-deer's hoof to be equally convenient in paſſing over ſnow, as it prevents their ſinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body reſt only on a ſmall point. This quadruped hath therefore an inſtinct to uſe a hoof of ſuch a form in a ſtill more advantageous manner, by ſeparating it when the foot is to touch the ground ſo as to cover a larger ſurface of ſnow. The inſtant however the leg of the animal is raiſed, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the colliſion of the parts occaſions the ſnapping noiſe. Probably the crackling which they perpetually make may ſerve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In ſummer, the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon moſs; which they have a wonderful ſagacity at finding, and, when found, ſcrape away the ſnow that covers it with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies which they can perform without any other ſupport. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down; with the reins, which are faſtened to the horns of the animal, in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſſing is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver

is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to support their maſter. Their inſtinct in chooſing their road, and directing their courſe, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in the woods. Their fleſh is a well-taſted food, whether freſh or dried; their ſkin forms excellent cloathing both for the bed and the body; their milk and cheeſe are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage When they run about wild in the fields, they may be ſhot at as other game. But it is ſaid, that if one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally choſen. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

It is difficult in ſummer to keep them from ſtraggling; they are ſometimes buried in the ſnow; and they frequently grow reſtive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their ſurpriſing ſpeed (for they are ſaid to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) ſeems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneaſy poſture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of theſe carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſtination.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finniſh origin, and comprehends ſo many dialects, that it is with difficulty they underſtand each other. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make uſe of in their Rounes, a ſort of ſticks that they call Piſtave, and which ſerve them for an almanack. Theſe hieroglyphics are alſo the marks they uſe inſtead of ſignatures, even in matters of law. Miſſionaries from the Chriſtianiſed parts of Scandinavia introduced among them the Chriſtian religion; but they cannot be ſaid even yet to be Chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminaries, inſtituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practiſe as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries as are to be found among the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that they ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their ſuperſtitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe their magicians make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch tree, one end of which is covered with a ſkin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtles, the ſun, moon, ſtars, birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and, according to their progreſs, the ſorcerer prognoſticates. Theſe frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of theſe impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they are told they may obtain what wind they want. This is alſo a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great addreſs on the part of the ſorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted taliſman. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of ſeveral of the Teutonic gods, and have among them many remains of the Druidical

inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul, and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air and have great power over human actions; but being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fiſhers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink or in the neighbourhood of ſome lake, from which they draw their ſubſiſtence. The others ſeek their ſupport upon the mountains and their environs, poſſeſſing herds of rein-deer more or leſs numerous, which they uſe according to the ſeaſon, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very induſtrious herdſmen, and are rich in compariſon of the Lapland fiſhers. Some of them poſſeſs ſix hundred or a thouſand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beſides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into claſſes; ſo that they inſtantly perceive whether any one has ſtrayed, though they cannot count to ſo great a number as that to which their ſtock often amounts. Thoſe who poſſeſs but a ſmall ſtock give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland fiſhers, who are alſo called Laplanders of the Woods, becauſe in ſummer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the foreſts, live by fiſhing and hunting, and chooſe their ſituation by its convenience for either. The greateſt part of them, however, have ſome rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chaſe: and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almoſt entirely aboliſhed the uſe of the bow and arrow. Beſides looking after the rein-deer, the fiſhery, and the chaſe, the men employ themſelves in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are ſmall, light, and compact. They alſo make ſledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harneſs for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utenſils, which are ſometimes neatly carved, and ſometimes ornamented with bones, braſs, or horn. The employment of the women conſiſts in making nets for the fiſhery, in drying fiſh and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheeſe, and tanning hides; but it is underſtood to be the buſineſs of the men to look after the kitchen, in which it is ſaid the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is from about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above ſix in height. They cover them, according to the ſeaſon and the means of the poſſeſſor, ſome with briars, bark of birch or of linden,—others with turf, coarſe cloth, or felt, or the old ſkins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains which open aſunder. A little place ſurrounded with ſtones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is ſuſpended to hang the kettle upon. They are ſcarcely able to ſtand upright in their huts, but conſtantly ſit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and, to ſeparate the apartments, place upright ſticks at ſmall diſtances. They cover themſelves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their houſehold furniture conſiſts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, ſpoons, and ſometimes tin or even ſilver baſons; to which may be added the implements of fiſhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry ſuch a number of things with them in their excurſions, they build in the foreſts, at certain diſtances, little huts, made like pigeon-houſes, and placed upon the trunk of a tree, cut off at the height of about ſix feet from the root. In theſe elevated huts they keep their goods and provi-

ſions; and though they are never ſhut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer ſupply the Laplanders with the greateſt part of their proviſions: the chaſe and the fiſhery ſupply the reſt. Their principal diſhes are the fleſh of the rein-deer, and puddings which they make of their blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the ſtomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the fleſh of the bear is conſidered by them as their moſt delicate meat. They eat every kind of fiſh, even the ſea-dog; as well as all kinds of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey and carnivorous animals. Their winter proviſions conſiſt chiefly of fleſh and fiſh dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any ſort of dreſſing. Their common drink is water, ſometimes mixed with milk; they make alſo broths and fiſh-ſoups. Brandy is very ſcarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family ſpreads a carpet on the ground; and the men and women ſquat round this mat, which is covered with diſhes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a ſpoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion ſeparately given him, that no perſon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a ſhort prayer; and as ſoon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In their dreſs, the Laplanders uſe no kind of linen. The men wear cloſe breeches, reaching down to their ſhoes, which are made of untanned ſkin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their ſhape, and open at the breaſt. Over this they wear a cloſe coat with narrow ſleeves, the ſkirts of which reach down to the knees, and which is faſtened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or braſs. To this girdle they tie their knives, their inſtruments for making fire, their pipes, and the reſt of their ſmoaking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the cloſe coat of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four ſeams adorned with liſts of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, ſhoes, doublets, and cloſe coats, in the ſame manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewiſe the implements for ſmoaking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with braſs wire. Their cloſe coat has a collar, which comes up ſomewhat higher than that of the men. Beſides theſe, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they ſometimes hang chains of ſilver, which paſs two or three times round the neck. They are often dreſſed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear alſo caps fitted to the ſhape of the head: and as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of braſs wire, or at leaſt with liſt of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of its ſoil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general conſiderably ſhorter than more ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman who was ſuckling her child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make however a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaiſant, chaſte, often well made, and extremely nervous; which is alſo obſervable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens that a Lapland woman will faint away,

or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a ſpark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noiſe, or the ſudden ſight of an unexpected object, though in its own nature not in the leaſt alarming; in ſhort, at the moſt trifling things imaginable. During theſe paroxiſms of terror, they deal about blows with the firſt thing that preſents itſelf; and, on coming to themſelves, are utterly ignorant of all that has paſſed.

When a Laplander intends to marry, he, or his friends, court the father of the fair one with brandy; and when, with ſome difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable, which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed from the father, by her lover, with a bottle of brandy; and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

Commerce.] Little can be ſaid of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein-deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes made of rein-deer milk. They receive for theſe rix-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, tobacco, and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox ſkin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rix-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war; and never being, ſo far as we know, employed in any army.

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# SWEDEN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| Miles. | | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 800 | between | | 56 and 69 North latitude. |
| Breadth 500 | | | 10 and 30 Eaſt longitude. |

Containing 220,000 ſquare miles, with 14 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries and divisions.] THIS country is bounded by the Baltic ſea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac, on the ſouth; by the impaſſable mountains of Norway on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland on the north; and by Muſcovy on the eaſt. It is divided into ſeven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (Theſe two laſt provinces belong now, however, to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6 Swediſh Lapland; and, 7. The Swediſh iſlands. The lakes and unimproved parts of Sweden are ſo extenſive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimenſions given us of this kingdom.

| Sweden. | Square Miles. 76,835 | Sum Total. 228,715 | Length. | Breadth. | Capital Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sweden Proper. - - - | 47,900 | | 342 | 194 | STOCKHOLM, N. Lat. 59—30. E. Lon. 19—15. |
| Gothland - - - - - | 25,975 | | 253 | 160 | Calmar. |
| Schonen - - - - - | 2,960 | | 77 | 56 | Lunden. |
| | | 76,835 | | | |
| Lapland and W. Bothnia. | 76,000 | | 420 | 340 | Torne, Uma. |
| Swediſh Finland and Eaſt Bothnia. | 73,000 | | 395 | 225 | Abo, Cajenburg. |
| Gothland I. - - - - | 1,000 | | 80 | 23 | Wiſby. |
| Oeland I. - - - - - | 560 | | 84 | 9 | Barkholm. |
| | | 150,560 | | | |
| Upper Saxony { Pomerania, P. | 960 | | 47 | 24 | Stralfund. |
| Upper Saxony { Rugen I. | 360 | | 24 | 21 | Bergen. |
| | | 1,320 | | | |

Of Sweden Proper, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Uplandia, | Helſingia, |
| Sudermania, | Dalecarlia, |
| Weſtmania, | Medelpedia, |
| Nericia, | Angermania, |
| Geſtricia, | Jemptia. |

Of Gothland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Eaſt Gothland, | Dalia, |
| Weſt Gothland, | Schonen, |
| Smaland, | Bleking, |
| Wermeland, | Halland. |

Of Swediſh Lapland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Thorne Lapmark, | Pithia Lapmark, |
| Kimi Lapmark | Uma Lapmark. |
| Lula Lapmark, | |

The principal places in Weſt Bothnia are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Of Finland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Eaſt Bothnia, | Nyland, |
| Cajania, | Travaſtia, |
| Savoloxia, | Finland Proper. |

The Swediſh iſles are, Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen.

The face of Sweden is nearly ſimilar to thoſe of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS. In Sweden, ſummer burſts ſuddenly from winter; and vegetation is more ſpeedy than in ſouthern climates; for the ſun is here ſo hot as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is ſo intenſe, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are ſometimes mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been diſcovered, is rubbing the affected part with ſnow. The Swedes, ſince the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The ſoil is much

the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurpriſingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry ſufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay that they raiſe almoſt as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in caſe of deficiency, the people are ſupplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In ſummer the fields are verdant and covered with flowers, and produce ſtrawberries, raſpberries, currants, and other ſmall fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry ſeaſons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces cryſtals, amethyſts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other foſſils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, ariſes from her mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. The laſt-mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and ſmelting-houſes. A kind of a gold mine has likewiſe been diſcovered in Sweden, but ſo inconſiderable, that, from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,389 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. ſterling. The firſt gallery of one ſilver-mine is 100 fathoms below the ſurface of the earth; the roof is ſupported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners deſcend about 40 fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vaſt taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other reſources for the exigencies of the ſtate. Theſe ſubterraneous manſions are aſtoniſhingly ſpacious, and at the ſame time commodious for their inhabitants, ſo that they ſeem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for ſome years the exports of Sweden for iron brought in 300,000 l. ſterling. It is ſuppoſed that they conſtituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that the exactions of the Swediſh government, the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and ſome other cauſes, have greatly diminiſhed this manufacture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] A few leagues from Gottenburg there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity from the height, into ſo deep a bed of water, that large maſts, and other bodies of timber, precipitated down it, diſappear for near an hour before they are recovered: the bottom of this bed has never been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms. A remarkable ſlimy lake, which ſinges things put ito it, has been found in the ſouthern parts of Gothland: and ſeveral parts of Sweden contain a ſtone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with ſeveral ſtreaks of white, as if compoſed of gold and ſilver, affords ſulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. In the univerſity of Upſal is preſerved the famous *Codex Argenteus*, a manuſcript, with ſilver letters, of a Gothic tranſlation of the Goſpels, by Ulphilas, a biſhop of the Goths in Mœſia, who lived about 1300 years ago. It is very ancient and very imperfect, but equally curious and valuable, becauſe it contains all that remains of the ancient Gothic language, the venerable parent of the Runic, the old Teutonic, and the Anglo-Saxon; and, conſequently, of the modern Engliſh, German, Daniſh, Swediſh, and Icelandic languages.

SEAS.] Their ſeas are the Baltic, and the gulfs of Bothnia and Fin-

land, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the weſt of Sweden are the Categate ſea, and the Sound, a ſtrait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

Theſe ſeas have no tides, and are frozen up uſually four months in the year; nor are they ſo ſalt as the ocean; never mixing with it, becauſe a current ſets always out of the Baltic ſea into the ocean.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Theſe differ little from thoſe already deſcribed in Norway and Denmark. The Swediſh horſes are more ſerviceable in war than the German. The Swediſh hawks, when carried to France, have been known to reviſit their native country, as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inſcription on a ſmall gold plate, ſignifying that he belonged to the French king. The fiſhes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden are the ſame with thoſe in other northern countries, and taken in ſuch quantities, that ſeveral ſorts of them, pikes in particular, are ſalted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the ſeals taken in the gulf of Finland is a conſiderable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The character of the Swedes has differed greatly in different ages; nor is it very uniform. At preſent their peaſants ſeem to be a heavy plodding race of men, ſtrong and hardy, but without any other ambition than that of ſubſiſting themſelves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile claſſes are much of the ſame caſt; but great application and perſeverance is diſcovered among them all. It ſeems difficult, however, to conceive that the modern Swedes are deſcendents of thoſe, who, under Guſtavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through diſtant countries, and ſhook the foundations of the greateſt empires. The intrigues of their ſenators drew them to take part in the war, called the ſeven-years' war, againſt Pruſſia; yet their behaviour was ſpiritleſs, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hoſpitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national intereſts. The dreſs, exerciſes, and diverſions of the common people, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Denmark: the better ſort are infatuated with French modes and faſhions. The women go to the plough, threſh out the corn, row upon the water, ſerve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in huſbandry.

RELIGION.] Chriſtianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated amongſt them by Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are ſurpriſingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and had ſuch an averſion to popery, that caſtration was the fate of every Roman-catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The archbiſhop of Upſal has a revenue of about 400l. a year, and has under him 13 ſuffragans, beſides ſuperintendents, with moderate ſtipends. No clergyman has the leaſt direction in the affairs of ſtate; but their morals and the ſanctity of their lives endear them ſo much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons direct their religious economy. A converſion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot paſs without the king's permiſſion, is puniſhed by impriſonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swediſh language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and reſembles that of Denmark. The Swediſh nobility and gentry are, in general, more converſant in polite

literature than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates. They have of late exhibited ſome noble ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witneſs their ſending, at the expence of private perſons, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher Haſſelquiſt into the eaſtern countries for diſcoveries, where he died. This noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swediſh majeſty purchaſed, at no inconſiderable expenſe for that country, all Haſſelquiſt's collection of curioſities. That able civilian, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian, Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and ſo was the late celebrated Linnæus, who contributed ſo eminently to the improvement of ſeveral branches of natural knowledge, particularly botany. The paſſion of the famous queen Chriſtina for literature is well known; and ſhe may be accounted a genius in many branches of ſcience. Even in the midſt of the late diſtractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a conſiderable height in that kingdom; and the character given by ſome writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great meaſure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal is that of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patroniſed by ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. There are near 1500 ſtudents in this univerſity; but for the moſt part they are extremely indigent, and lodge, five or ſix together, in very poor hovels. The profeſſors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; of whom the principal are thoſe of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, and agriculture. Their ſalaries are from 70l. to 100l. per annum. This univerſity, juſtly called, by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled ſchool of natural hiſtory," is certainly the firſt ſeminary of the North for academical education, and has produced, from the time of its inſtitution, perſons eminent in every branch of ſcience. The learned publications which have lately been given to the world by its members, ſufficiently prove the flouriſhing ſtate of literature in theſe parts; and the theſes, compoſed by the ſtudents on their admiſſion to their degrees, would form a very intereſting collection. Many of theſe tracts, upon various ſubjects of polite literature, antiquities, languages, &c. evince the erudition and taſte of the reſpective authors. Among the works of this ſort, which have widely diffuſed the fame of this learned ſociety throughout Europe, are the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, or a Collection of Theſes upon Natural Hiſtory, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly ſelected by that maſter.

There is another univerſity at Abo in Finland, but not ſo well endowed, nor ſo flouriſhing; and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every dioceſe is provided with a free-ſchool, in which boys are qualified for the univerſity *.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. The Swediſh commonalty ſubſiſt by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic are the bulky and uſeful commodities of maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-aſh, wooden utenſils

* An academy of arts and ſciences was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, and is now in a flouriſhing condition. They have publiſhed ſeveral volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fiſh. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden ſo late as the 16th century; for till that time they ſold their own crude ore to the Hanſe towns, and bought it back again manufactured into utenſils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch and Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactories of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, woollens, ſilk, ſoap, leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills. Bookſelling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; of linen, alum, and brimſtone; paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills. Vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have alſo founderies for cannon, forges for fire-arms and anchors; armouries, wire and ſlatting mills; mills alſo for fulling, and for boring and ſtamping; and of late they have built many ſhips for ſale.

Certain towns in Sweden, 24 in number, are called ſtaple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine diſtricts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increaſed their exports, and diminiſhed their imports, moſt part of which arrive, or are ſent off, in Swediſh ſhips; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation act, like that of the Engliſh. Theſe promiſing appearances were, however, fruſtrated by the improper management and jealouſies of the Swediſh government.

Stockholm is a ſtaple-town, and the capital of the kingdom: it ſtands about 760 miles North-eaſt of London, upon ſeven ſmall rocky iſlands, beſides two peninſulas, and is built upon piles. It ſtrongly impreſſes a ſtranger with its ſingular and romantic ſcenery. A variety of contraſted and enchanting views are formed by numberleſs rocks of granite, riſing boldly from the ſurface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houſes, or feathered with wood. The harbour, which is ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs, is an inlet of the Baltic: the water is clear as cryſtal, and of ſuch depth that ſhips of the largeſt burden can approach the quay, which is of conſiderable breadth, and lined with ſpacious buildings and warehouſes. At the extremity of the harbour ſeveral ſtreets riſe one above another, in the form of an amphitheatre; and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the ſummit. Towards the ſea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is contracted into a narrow ſtrait, and, winding among high rocks, diſappears from the ſight; the proſpect is terminated by diſtant hills, overſpread with foreſt. It is far beyond the power of words, or of the pencil, to delineate theſe ſingular views. The central iſland, from which the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handſomeſt parts of the town.

Excepting in the ſuburbs, where the houſes are of wood, painted red, the generality of the buildings are of ſtone, or brick ſtuccoed white. The royal palace, which ſtands in the centre of Stockholm, and upon the higheſt ſpot of ground, was begun by Charles XI. It is a large quadrangular ſtone edifice, and the ſtyle of architecture is both elegant and magnificent *.

The number of houſekeepers who pay taxes are 60,000. This city is furniſhed with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce that are common to other great European

* Coxe, vol. ii. p. 327, 328.

cities, particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 450,000l. ſterling.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the courſe of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became deſpotic. He was ſucceeded by his ſiſter Ulrica, who conſented to the abolition of deſpotiſm, and reſtored the ſtates to their former liberties; and they, in return, aſſociated her huſband, the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, with her in the government. A new model of the conſtitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the ſtates appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all the employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king, only with the approbation of the ſenate. The eſtates were formed of deputies from the four orders; nobility, clergy, burghers, and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peaſants to 250. Each order ſat in its own houſe, and had its own ſpeaker; and each choſe a ſecret committee for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſtates were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January; and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain, becauſe the king's prerogative was more bounded.

When the ſtates were not ſitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the ſenate; which were no other than a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner. The nobility, or upper-houſe, appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe choſe three perſons, who were to be preſented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peaſants had no vote in electing a ſenator. Almoſt all the executive power was lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſted of 14 members, beſides the chief governors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand-marſhal. Thoſe ſenators, during the receſs of the ſtates, formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each ſenator was accountable to the ſtates for his conduct in the ſenate. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might be called republican; for the king's power was not ſo great as that of a ſtadtholder. The ſenate had even a power of impoſing upon the king a ſub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endleſs to recount the numerous ſubordinate courts, boards, commiſſions, and tribunals, which the jealouſy of the Swedes had introduced into the civil, military, commercial, and other departments. Their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and the operations of government were greatly retarded, if not rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which they muſt paſs.

But in Auguſt, 1772, the whole ſyſtem of the Swediſh government was totally changed by the late king, in the moſt unexpected manner. The circumſtances which attended this extraordinary revolution will be found in our hiſtory of Sweden. By that event the Swedes, inſtead of

having the particular defects of their conſtitution rectified, found their king inveſted with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the moſt deſpotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king may aſſemble and ſeparate the ſtates whenever he pleaſes: he has the ſole diſpoſal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military; and though he cannot openly claim a power of impoſing taxes on all occaſions, yet ſuch as already ſubſiſt are to be perpetual; and, in caſe of invaſion or preſſing neceſſity, he may impoſe ſome taxes till the ſtates can be aſſembled; but of this neceſſity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the ſtates depends wholly upon his will and pleaſure; and when they are aſſembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is eaſy to perceive, that a government thus conſtituted can be little removed from one of the moſt deſpotic kind. Yet, in order to amuſe the nation with ſome ſlight appearances of a legal and limited government in the new ſyſtem, which conſiſts of fifty-ſeven articles, a ſenate is appointed, conſiſting of ſeventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown and the governor of Pomerania; and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the ſtate, whenever the king ſhall demand it. In that caſe, if the queſtions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the ſenators ſhould be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is ſaid, ſhall follow their advice. But this, it may be obſerved, is a circumſtance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of a ſenate, conſiſting chiefly of officers of the crown, ſhould give their opinions againſt the king; and in every other caſe the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are ſome other apparent reſtraints of the regal power in the new ſyſtem of government; but they are in reality very inconſiderable. It is ſaid, indeed, that the king cannot eſtabliſh any new law, nor aboliſh any old one, without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates: but the king of Sweden, according to the preſent conſtitution, is inveſted with ſo much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any perſon will venture to make an oppoſition to whatever he ſhall propoſe.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common methods of execution in Sweden are beheading and hanging: for murder, the hand of the criminal is firſt chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered; women, after beheading, inſtead of being quartered, are burned. No capital puniſhment is inflicted without the ſentence being confirmed by the king. Every priſoner is at liberty to petition the king, within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjuſt condemnation, and in ſuch a caſe demands a reviſal of the ſentence; or elſe prays for pardon, or a mitigation of puniſhment. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes; ſuch as murder, houſe-breaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated theſts. Other crimes, many of which in ſome countries are conſidered as capital, are chiefly puniſhed by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, impriſonment and hard labour, either for life or for a ſtated time, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals were tortured to extort confeſſion, till the reign of the late king; but in 1773, his Swediſh majeſty aboliſhed this cruel and abſurd practice.

POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN.] In the reign of Guſtavus Vaſa, a treaty of alliance firſt took place between Sweden and France; and afterwards Sweden alſo entered into a ſubſidiary treaty with France, in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus. In conſequence of theſe treaties, France

by degrees acquired an aſcendency in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the intereſts of that kingdom. This crown has generally received a ſubſidy from France for above 100 years paſt, and has ſuffered greatly by it. During the reigns of Charles the XIth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was ſacrificed to the intereſt of France; and during the war with the king of Pruſſia, uſually called the ſeven-years' war, for the ſake of a ſmall ſubſidy from France, the crown of Sweden was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000l. which has ſince been conſiderably augmented; ſo that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their ableſt ſtateſmen have perceived the miſchievous tendency of their connexion with France, and have endeavoured to put an end to it; but the influence of the French court in Sweden, in conſequence of their ſubſidies and intrigues, has occaſioned conſiderable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a moſt powerful party appeared in the diet, in favour of French meaſures. The perſons who compoſed it went under the denomination of the *Hats*. The object held out to the nation was the recovery of ſome of the dominions yielded to Ruſſia; and conſequently the ſyſtem they were to proceed upon was to break with that power, and connect themſelves with France. The party directly oppoſed to them was headed by count Horn, and thoſe who had contributed to eſtabliſh the new form of government, which was ſettled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion of the domeſtic welfare of the nation. The ſyſtem, therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a cloſe correſpondence with Ruſſia, and to avoid all farther connexion with France. Theſe were ſtyled the *Caps*. There was beſides a third party, called the *Hunting-Caps*, compoſed of perſons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themſelves. Theſe parties long continued; but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real intereſts of the kingdom. Some efforts were employed by the Engliſh court to leſſen or deſtroy the French influence in Sweden, and for ſome time they were ſucceſsful; but the Hat party again acquired the aſcendency. Theſe parties, however, are now aboliſhed, in conſequence of the late king of Sweden having made ſuch a total change in the conſtitution of the government.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, by the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and with the Ruſſians ſince, has been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verden, and other places diſunited from that kingdom, contain about 78,000 ſquare miles. Her gold and ſilver ſpecie, in the late reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are ſaid to have produced one million ſterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, are extremely inconvenient; ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate ſum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued each at 5s. 2d.; but theſe are very ſcarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little ſpecie in circulation: large pieces of copper ſtamped, and ſmall bank notes, being almoſt their only circulating money.

STRENGTH AND FORCES.] No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes: and yet they cannot be ſaid to maintain a ſtanding army, as their forces principally conſiſt of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raiſed upon the nobility and gentry, according to their eſtates;

and

and the infantry by the peaſants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of ſoldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70 l. per annum is charged with a foot ſoldier, furniſhing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20 s. a year in money; or elſe a little wooden houſe is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, they are ſubject to military law, but otherwiſe to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be ſaid that every Swediſh ſoldier has a property in the country he defends. In 1791 the ſtanding regiments amounted to 13,500 infantry and 1,000 cavalry; and the national troops to 22,500 infantry, 7,000 cavalry, and 3,500 dragoons *. Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ſhips of the line; but of late years their ſhips, together with their docks, have been ſuffered greatly to decay.

Royal Style.] The King's ſtyle is, King of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomerania. &c.

Orders of knighthood.] Theſe are the order of the *North* or *Polar Star*, conſiſting of twenty-four members; the order of *Vaſa*; and the order of the *Sword*: the laſt created in 1772.

History of Sweden.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern nations of Europe. The introduction of Chriſtianity by Anſgarius, biſhop of Bremen, in 829, ſeems to preſent the firſt certain period of the Swediſh hiſtory.

The hiſtory of this kingdom, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, is confuſed and unintereſting, and often doubtful; but ſufficiently replete with murders, maſſacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of conſiſtency till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it aſſumes a more regular appearance. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly aſcertained or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective; though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſregarded. The great lords poſſeſſed the moſt conſiderable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which conſiſted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itſelf in a very rude and imperfect ſtate. The clergy, particularly thoſe of a dignified rank, from the great reſpect paid to their character among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an immenſe influence in all public affairs, and obtained poſſeſſion of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. Theſe two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the ſtate, formed a council, called the Senate, which deliberated on all public affairs. This ſyſtem of government was extremely unfavourable to the national proſperity. The Swedes periſhed in the diſſenſions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between thoſe and their ſovereign; they were drained of the little riches they poſſeſſed, to ſupport the indolent pomp of a few magnificent biſhops; and, what was ſtill more fatal, the unlucky ſituation of their internal affairs expoſed them to the inroads and oppreſſion of a foreign enemy. Theſe were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themſelves of the diſſenſions of Sweden, and to ſubject under a foreign yoke a country weakened and exhauſted by its domeſtic broils. In this deplorable ſituation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; ſometimes under a

* *Voyage de deux François dans le Nord de l'Europe*, 5 tom. 8vo. 1796.

nominal ſubjection to its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted.

Magnus Ladiſlaus, crowned in 1276, ſeems to have been the firſt king of Sweden who purſued a regular ſyſtem to increaſe his authority; and to ſucceed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ableſt princes who ever ſat on the Swediſh throne: by his art and addreſs he prevailed upon the convention of eſtates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the ſupport of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increaſe of the regal power: and whilſt, by the ſteady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty ſpirit of the nobles, and created in the reſt of the nation a reſpect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted, he, at the ſame time, by employing his authority in many reſpects for the public good, reconciled his ſubjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have oppoſed with the utmoſt violence. The ſucceſſors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and ſeveral commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great confuſion.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both theſe kingdoms. That princeſs, to the ordinary ambition of her ſex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greateſt and moſt complicated deſigns. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, becauſe, like Semiramis, ſhe found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immenſe extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to the throne of the latter in 1364. She projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the North; by which theſe kingdoms were for the future to remain under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence between them all. Several revolutions enſued after the death of Margaret; and at length Chriſtian II. the laſt king of Denmark who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was alſo king of Sweden, engaged in a ſcheme to render himſelf entirely abſolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this deſign proved the deſtruction of himſelf, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to eſtabliſh his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for maſſacring the principal nobility. This horrid deſign was actually carried into execution, Nov. 8, 1520. Of all thoſe who could oppoſe the deſpotic purpoſes of Chriſtian, no one remained in Sweden but Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince deſcended from the ancient kings of that country, and who had already ſignaliſed his arms againſt the king of Denmark. An immenſe price was ſet upon his head. The Daniſh ſoldiers were ſent in purſuit of him; but by his dexterity and addreſs he eluded all their attempts, and eſcaped under the diſguiſe of a peaſant to the mountains of Dalecarlia. After undergoing innumerable dangers and fatigues, and working in the braſs-mines to prevent being diſcovered, he was betrayed by thoſe in whom he repoſed his confidence; but at length ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, engaged the ſavage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Sweden by his means again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were moſtly deſtroyed. Guſtavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his perſon. He was created therefore firſt adminiſtrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by univerſal conſent,

and with the ſhouts of the whole nation. His circumſtances were much more favourable than thoſe of any former prince who had poſſeſſed this dignity. The maſſacre of the nobles had freed him from thoſe proud and haughty enemies, who had ſo long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no leſs powerful than dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious ſyſtem of that country; and the exerciſe of the Roman-catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the ſevereſt penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Inſtead of a Gothic ariſtocracy, the moſt turbulent of all governments, and, when empoiſoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the moſt wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were ſoon viſible: arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; navigation and commerce began to flouriſh; letters and civil improvements were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the reſt of Europe, began to be formidable by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties and deliberations.

Guſtavus died in 1559, while his eldeſt ſon Eric was preparing to embark for England to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who ſucceeded his father Guſtavus Vaſa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miſerable and cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers forced them to take up arms; and the ſenate ſiding with them, he was depoſed in 1566. His brother John ſucceeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made ſtrong efforts for that purpoſe, and even reconciled himſelf to the pope, he was oppoſed by his brother Charles, and the ſcheme proved ineffectual. His ſon Sigiſmund was choſen king of Poland in 1587; upon which he endeavoured again to reſtore the Roman-catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to John, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden; and being a ſtrenuous proteſtant, his nephew Sigiſmund endeavoured to drive him from the adminiſtratorſhip, but without effect; till at laſt he and his family were excluded from the ſucceſſion to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigiſmund, who was a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, heir apparent to the crown of Sweden, though then a minor. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the ſtates, though then only in his eighteenth year. Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion, found himſelf, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Ruſſians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite diſadvantages, all which he ſurmounted. He had nearly rendered himſelf ſovereign of Ruſſia. In 1617, he made a peace under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with which he likewiſe received a ſum of money.

The ideas of Guſtavus began now to extend. He had ſeen a vaſt deal of military ſervice, and he was aſſiſted by the counſels of La Gardie, one of the beſt generals and wiſeſt ſtateſmen of his age. His troops

had become the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterpriſing ſpirit, and ſupported his ancient implacable enemy Sigiſmund, whom he defeated. In 1627, he formed the ſiege of Dantzick, in which he was unſucceſsful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the ſudden riſe of the Viſtula, added ſo much to his military character, that the proteſtant princes placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the houſe of Auſtria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the moſt rapid and wonderful ſucceſſes. After taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg, defeated the famous count Tilly, the Auſtrian general, who was till then thought invincible, and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenſtein, another Auſtrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to the command againſt Guſtavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a victory, which, had he ſurvived, would probably have put a period to the Auſtrian greatneſs.

The amazing abilities of Guſtavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared ſo fully as after his death. He left behind him a ſet of generals trained by himſelf, who maintained the glory of the Swediſh army with moſt aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torſtenſon, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, will long live in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what courſe Guſtavus would have purſued, had his life been prolonged, and his ſucceſſes continued; but there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that he had in view ſomewhat more than the relief of the proteſtants, and the reſtoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenſtiern was as conſummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Chriſtina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with ſuch ſucceſs, that ſhe in a manner dictated the peace of Weſtphalia, 1648, which gave a new ſyſtem to the affairs of Europe.

Chriſtina was but ſix years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court Deſcartes, Salmaſius, and other learned men, to whom ſhe was not, however, extremely liberal. She expreſſed a value for Grotius; and ſhe was an excellent judge of the polite arts, but illiberal and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the ſame time diſcharged all the duties of her high ſtation; and though her generals were baſely betrayed by France, ſhe continued to ſupport the honour of her crown. Being reſolved not to marry, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great ſucceſs againſt the Poles: he drove their king, John Caſimir, into Sileſia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their uſual inconſtancy, they broke. His progreſs upon the ice againſt Denmark has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it neceſſary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the iſland of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the ſame time with Ruſſia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very reſpectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a

fubſidy from the French king, Lewis XIV.; but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland. He afterwards joined with France againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but being defeated in Germany at Felem Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed againſt him. The elector of Brandenburg made himſelf maſter of Swediſh Pomerania; the biſhop of Munſter over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had loſt, except ſome places in Germany. He then married Ulrica-Leonora, the king of Denmark's ſiſter; but made a baſe uſe of the tranquillity he had regained, by employing his army to enſlave his people. The ſtates loſt all their power; and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to loſe his head and his right hand, for the boldneſs of his remonſtrance in favour of his countrymen; but he ſaved himſelf by flight; and Charles became ſo powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the famous Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen; but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of count Piper, who became in conſequence his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He entered into a war with them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was re eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at that time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſucceſſes, and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Ruſſians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled if they did not excel thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus king of Poland; but ſtained all his laurels by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally cruel and ignominious. He raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown of Poland in 1705, and his name carried with it ſuch terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe, and among others by the duke of Marlborough in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of her ſucceſſes againſt France. His ſtubbornneſs and implacable diſpoſition, however, were ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light than that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt, in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks found it, however, convenient for their affairs to ſet him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madneſs; and after his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon ſhot, as it is generally ſaid, at the ſiege of Frederics-

hall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-ſix years of age. It has been ſuppoſed that Charles was not in reality killed by a ſhot from the walls of Fredericshall, but that a piſtol, from one of thoſe about him, gave the deciſive blow which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is ſaid to be very prevalent among the beſt informed perſons in Sweden. And it appears that the Swedes were tired of a prince under whom they had loſt their richeſt provinces, their braveſt troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adverſity, purſued an unſucceſsful and pernicious war, nor would ever have conſented to reſtore tranquillity to his country.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleanora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given ſome account of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband. Their firſt care was to make peace with Great-Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent farther loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many and great ſacrifices to obtain peace from thoſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom under the name of the *Hats*, which has already been mentioned, and which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was neceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of Holſtein was deſcended from the queen's eldeſt ſiſter, and was at the ſame time the preſumptive heir to the empire of Ruſſia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Heſſe Caſſel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holſtein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Ruſſia. The czarina interpoſed, and offered to reſtore all the conqueſts ſhe had made from Sweden, excepting a ſmall diſtrict in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holſtein's uncle, the biſhop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince and ſucceſſor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty. This peace was ſo firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Daniſh majeſty thought proper to drop all his reſentment, and forget the indignity done to his ſon. The ſucceſſor of this prince, Adolphus Frederic, married the princeſs Ulrica, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia, and entered into the poſſeſſion of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, but much haraſſed by the contending Swediſh factions, and found his ſituation extremely troubleſome, in conſequence of the reſtraints and oppoſition which he met with from the ſenate. He paſſed the greateſt part of his reign very diſagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Guſtavus the Third, the late king, who poſſeſſed abilities greatly ſuperior to thoſe of his father.

Guſtavus was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden: his underſtanding had been much cultivated; he had an inſinuating addreſs, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, whence he wrote in the moſt gracious terms to the ſenate, repeatedly aſſuring them that he deſigned to govern according to the laws. In conſequence of

the death of his predeceſſor, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to ſettle the form of the coronation-oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majeſty ſolemnly ſigned and ſwore to obſerve twenty-four articles relative to his future adminiſtration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promiſes before God to ſupport the government of the kingdom, as now eſtabliſhed; to maintain the rights and liberties of the ſtates, the liberty and ſecurity of all his ſubjects, and to reign with gentleneſs and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was eſtabliſhed in the year 1720, and conformable to the preſent act of capitulation. In conſequence of the declaration of the ſtates, the king will regard any perſon who ſhall openly or clandeſtinely endeavour to introduce abſolute ſovereignty, as an enemy to the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, ſince every perſon muſt take an oath to this purpoſe before he can receive poſſeſſion of any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and the ſenate, the king promiſes to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, according to which they are to be directed always by a majority of votes, and he engages never to act without, and much leſs againſt, their advice. To the end that the council of ſtate may be ſo much the more convinced of the inviolable deſigns of his majeſty, and of his ſincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely diſengaged from their oath of fidelity, in caſe that he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And laſtly, the king threatens any perſon with his higheſt diſpleaſure who ſhall be ſo inconſiderate as to propoſe to him a greater degree of power and ſplendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his majeſty deſires only to ſecure the affections of his faithful ſubjects, and to be their powerful defender againſt any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

But ſcarcely had the king taken theſe ſolemn oaths to rule according to the then eſtabliſhed form of government, and accepted the crown upon theſe conditions, before he formed a plan to govern as he thought proper; regarding theſe oaths only as matters of ceremony. He made uſe of every art, the moſt profound diſſimulation, and the utmoſt dexterity and addreſs, in order to render this hazardous enterpriſe ſucceſsful. On his firſt arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increaſe his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who preſented themſelves. Neither rank, fortune, nor intereſt, were neceſſary to obtain acceſs to him; it was ſufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cauſe of complaint to lay before him. He liſtened to the meaneſt of his ſubjects with affability, and entered into the minuteſt details that concerned them: he informed himſelf of their private affairs, and ſeemed to intereſt himſelf in their happineſs. This conduct cauſed him to be conſidered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idoliſe him. In the mean time there happened ſome contentions between the different orders of the Swediſh ſtates; and no methods were left untried to foment theſe jealouſies. Emiſſaries were likewiſe planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpoſe of ſowing diſcontent among the inhabitants, or rendering them diſaffected to the eſtabliſhed government, and of exciting them to an inſurrection. At length, when the king found his ſcheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper meaſures for bring-

ing a conſiderable number of the officers and ſoldiers* into his intereſt, on the 19th of Auguſt 1772 he totally overturned the Swediſh conſtitution of government. In leſs than an hour he made himſelf maſter of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber in which the ſenate were aſſembled, and made all the members of it priſoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden of the tranſaction in which the king was engaged, till the ſcheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arſenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers ſtood over theſe with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a paſſport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The ſenators were then confined in ſeparate apartments of the palace; and many others who were ſuppoſed to be zealouſly attached to the liberties of Sweden were put under arreſt. The remainder of the day the king employed in viſiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magiſtrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were alſo tendered the next day to the public in general, to whom he addreſſed a ſpeech, which he concluded by declaring that his only intention was to reſtore tranquillity to his native country, by ſuppreſſing licentiouſneſs, overturning the ariſtocratic form of government, reviving the old Swediſh liberty, and reſtoring the ancient laws of Sweden, ſuch as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," ſaid he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred abſolute "power, or what is called *ſovereignty*, eſteeming it now, as before, my "greateſt glory to be the firſt citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town to proclaim an aſſembly of the ſtates for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet ſhould abſent himſelf, he ſhould be conſidered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21ſt of Auguſt, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take poſſeſſion of the ſquare where the houſe of nobles ſtands. The palace was inveſted on all ſides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court facing the hall where the ſtates were to be aſſembled. Theſe were not only charged, but ſoldiers ſtood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The ſeveral orders of the ſtates were here compelled to aſſemble by the king's command; and theſe military preparations were made in order to aſſiſt their deliberations. The king being ſeated on his throne, ſurrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addreſſed a ſpeech to the ſtates, ordered a ſecretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the ſtates for their acceptance. As they were ſurrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marſhal of the diet, and the ſpeakers of the other orders, ſigned the form of government; and the ſtates took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himſelf. This extraordinary tranſaction was

* The fidelity which was manifeſted by a private ſoldier, on this occaſion, deſerves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king, being deſirous of viſiting the arſenal, went thither, and ordered the centinel to admit him. The latter refuſed. "Do you know whom you are ſpeaking to?" ſaid the king. "Yes," replied the ſoldier: "but I likewiſe know my duty."—*Vide* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden, publiſhed by Charles Francis Sheridan, eſq. who was ſecretary to the Britiſh envoy in Sweden at the time of the revolution.

concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of pſalms from his pocket, and, taking off his crown, began to ſing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the aſſembly. He afterwards gave them to underſtand, that he intended in ſix years' time again to convene an aſſembly of the ſtates. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodſhed, in which the Swedes ſurrendered that conſtitution which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark againſt any deſpotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The exorbitant power which Guſtavus the Third had thus aſſumed, he exerciſed with ſome degree of moderation; and at an aſſembly of the ſtates in 1786, after many points were referred to them by the king, and debated with great freedom, he diſmiſſed them with condeſcenſion and gentleneſs, at the ſame time remitting a tenth part of the ſubſidy which they had granted him.

On the 12th of July, 1788, hoſtilities commenced on the frontiers of Finland, between a body of Ruſſian light troops, and a detachment of the Swedes poſted on the bridge of Pomalaſund. After various engagements both by land and ſea, in which Guſtavus diſplayed the greateſt abilities, an agreement for eſtabliſhing an everlaſting peace, and fixing the frontiers of Ruſſia as they were before the war broke out, was ſigned at Werela, on the river Kymene, between the plenipotentiaries of the empreſs of Ruſſia and the king of Sweden.

A diet ſummoned by the king to meet at Gefflé, a ſolitary place on the Bothnic Gulf, near ſeventy miles from Stockholm, excited much attention. Some imagined that the diet might aſſert the national freedom againſt a deſpotic monarch; but Guſtavus had guarded againſt any ſuch deſign, by his choice of the ſpot, and ſurrounding it with his mercenary troops. He found ſome difficulty in gaining his only intention, that of raiſing money, and was obliged to be ſatisfied with a part of his demand.

The diet being diſſolved, the king returned to Stockholm, where, at a maſquerade in the opera-houſe, on the night of the 16th of March, 1792, he was ſhot with a piſtol by an aſſaſſin, named Ankerſtroem, in conſequence of a conſpiracy among ſome of the diſcontented nobles; and having ſurvived in great pain till the 29th of that month, he expired, in the forty-fifth year of his reign.

The reflection of dying ingloriouſly by the hand of a vile aſſaſſin is ſaid to have embittered the laſt moments of the king's life much more than even the agoniſing pain of his wounds. He ſhowed the ſame noble and brave ſpirit on his death-bed as he had done before his enemies during his life-time. He retained all his mental faculties to the laſt, which enabled him ſo well to arrange the future government of his country.

The wounds at firſt indicated the moſt promiſing appearance of recovery, and the ſlugs were all extracted: but ſome ruſty pieces of iron had penetrated ſo far into the body as to render any ſurgical operation immediate death. The preſence of mind ſhown by Guſtavus during his illneſs was very great. While he waited for the arrival of his ſurgeons in an apartment adjoining to the ſaloon of the opera-houſe, ſeveral of the foreign miniſters preſented themſelves, to whom he ſaid, "I have "given orders, gentlemen, that the gates of the city ſhall be ſhut. You "will therefore not take it ill, if you ſhould be unable to ſend couriers "to your courts until after three days. Your advices will then be more "certain, ſince it will be probably known whether I can ſurvive or "not." His converſation then related to the effects which the acci-

Plate T.

# Northern Part of RUSSIA, or, MUSCOVY in EUROPE.

British Miles 60½ to a Degree

FROZEN OCEAN

GULF of KARA

WHITE SEA

GULF of BOTHNIA

GULF OF FINLAND

LAKE Onega

LAKE Ladoga

RUSSIAN LAPLAND

LAPLAND

FINLAND

ESTHONIA

LIVONIA

RUSSIA

North Cape

Wardehus

Waygatz

Str. of Oleni I.

Lomni I.

Kayerskoi

Enaraby

Tuloma R.

L. Enara

L. Kola

Kola

Kandalax

Kandalaxskoi

Ekaterskoi

Babenskoi

Uspenskoi

L. Seyo

Orlow

Ponoiskoi

Umba

Kerets

Oleneitsa

Pulaia

Kolgow Isle

C. Kanin

Kanin Isle

Narjova

Pustozerskoi

Senza

Arctic Circle

Korovinska R.

Kapui R.

Pesa R.

Vikolskoi

Mezen

Mezen R.

Pesma R.

Kuloi R.

Mezen

Olenskoi

Pyskoi

Archangel

Pinega R.

Kewrol

Pinega

Wolonga R.

Wim R.

Pinega R.

Lindega R.

Turenskoi

Kopezskoi

Pinetskoi

Surskoi

Wedenskoi

Pinega

Wopokas

Spaskoi

Derenjanna

Kolskoi

Kolmogory

Priluzkoi

Rakulskoi

Dwina R.

Waga

Wedenskoi

Wyzegodskaja

Wotczinskoi

Ustiuga

Lalskoi

Rostowskaya

Kamenskaja

Piatigor

Sol

Kama R.

Czarduym or Pekruga

Kolwa R.

Ilinskoi

Pokrowskoi

Uspenskoi

Troickoi

Archangelsk

Totma

Sucheona R.

Vaga R.

Pestowskoi

Orel

Studka

Czugomoi

Kuznetzowo

Viatka

Sezemena

Troickoe

Oczerskoi

Amour

Wyborg

Kexholm

Frederickshamn

Wilmanstrand

Kexholm

Olonetz

Petrosa

Salmis

Petrosk

Kargopol

Lodeinoe

Pudoga

Onega

Kovirista

Nyen

Nyenskanz

PETERSBURG

Ingermanland

Tichvin

Tichvinskoi

Sandova

Lodeinoe

Lodeinskoi

Oustiga

Vologda

Belozero

Belozerskoi

Kwirinskoi

Frolowskoi

Ecorienskoi

Galickaja

Nikolaevskoi

Sudai

Kelogrieve

Ostrowskoi

Parfenev

Unza

Galicitch

Lindsim

Romanovsk

Mologa

Mologa R.

Tazerezkoi

Pozechonie

Borowiez

Ilmen

Novogorod

Oserensis

Pleskov

Porchov

Pskartowa

Wenden

Wolmar

Riga

Gulf of Riga

Pernau

Arensburg

Dago

Oesel

Aland I.

Abo

Nystadt

Biorneburg

Christianstadt

Wasa

Carleby

Uleaborg

Tornea

Umea

Kemi

Kuusamo

Kuusamo L.

Kemi R.

Tornea R.

Ulea

Pitea

Lulea

Lulea R.

Kengis

Kengis R.

Kola R.

Tuloma R.

Ponoi R.

Kovda R.

Umba R.

Kem R.

Vyg L.

Onega L.

Ladoga L.

Peipus L.

Ilmen L.

Peipus R.

Narova R.

Embach R.

Ingermanland

Livonia

Esthonia

Courland

Lithuania

Wolhynia

Podolia

Ukraine

Kiow

Tschernigow

Orel

Kursk

Charkow

Poltawa

Ekaterinoslaw

Slobodskoi

Kasan

Simbirsk

Saratow

Astrachan

Caspian Sea

Longitude 25 East from London.

30

35

40

45

50

55

60

65

Plate VI.

# Southern Part of RUSSIA. or, MUSCOVY in EUROPE

Russian Wersts 105 to a Degree.
British Miles 69½ to a Degree.
Longitude East from London.

dent might produce in Europe: and the love of fame, which was always his predominant paſſion, was perceptible in his remarks.

Finding that he was not likely to ſurvive, he ſettled all his affairs with the greateſt compoſure imaginable. He ſent for his ſon the prince royal, and addreſſed a ſpeech to him on the nature of good government, in a manner ſo truly affecting, that all who were preſent ſhed tears. At eight o'clock, on the morning of his death, he received the ſacrament. The queen had taken leave of him the evening before; and at half paſt ten he died in great agonies.

The prince-royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed king, by the name of Guſtavus Adolphus; and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late king, in compliance with his majeſty's will, was declared ſole regent, and guardian of the young ſovereign, till he ſhould attain his majority, which was fixed at the age of eighteen. We have only to add, that the prudence and conciliatory meaſures of the regent have eſtabliſhed the tranquillity of this kingdom beyond expectation.

Guſtavus Adolphus IV. the preſent king of Sweden, was born Nov. 1, 1778; and ſucceeded his father Guſtavus III. March 29, 1792.

Guſtavus III. the late king, was born Jan. 24, 1746; married Oct. 17, 1766, to the princeſs-royal of Denmark, by whom he had iſſue Guſtavus Adolphus, the preſent king.

Brothers and ſiſters to the late king:

1. Charles, duke of Sudermania, born Oct. 7, 1748.
2. Frederic Adolphus, duke of Weſt-Gothland, born July 18, 1750.
3. Sophia Albertina, abbeſs of Quedlingburg, born in Oct. 1753.

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# MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1500 | between | 23 and 65 Eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth | 1100 | | 47 and 72 North latitude. |

Ruſſia in Europe contains 1,194,976 ſquare miles, with 17 inhabitants to each.

DIVISIONS AND NAMES. ACCORDING to the moſt authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it conſiſts of forty-two provinces, or governments; beſides part of Carelia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, which were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Cherſoneſus, a peninſula in the Euxine Sea, ſubject to the Turks formerly, but added in the year 1783 to the Ruſſian empire, with the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban*; alſo the duchy of Courland, and a great part of Lithuania in Poland, together with another large portion of the latter country, united to the Ruſſian empire, in conſequence of a ſecond

* The Ruſſians are ſuppoſed to have gained above a million of ſubjects by this acceſſion.

partition of Poland in the year 1793; conſiſting of all that tract of land, with its inhabitants, which is contained within a line beginning at the village of Druy, on the left bank of the river Dwina, and thence extending to Neroch and Dubrova, paſſing Kuniſh, near the frontier of Gallicia, proceeding thence to the river Dnieſter, and laſtly running along that river till it enters the old border of Ruſſia and Poland at Jegertic.

The following table will give ſome idea of the Ruſſian empire properly ſo called, or Ruſſia in Europe, with its acquiſitions from Sweden in the preſent century; and alſo of the Ruſſian empire in its moſt extenſive ſenſe; for we muſt alſo include all the acquiſitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia; the whole comprehending the northern parts of Europe and Aſia, ſtretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the Weſt, to Kamtſchatka and the Eaſtern Ocean; and on the north, from the Frozen Ocean to the forty-ſeventh degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caſpian Seas, Great Tartary, Chineſe Tartary, and other unknown regions in Aſia.

The country now compriſed under the name of Ruſſia, or the Ruſſias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the reſt of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius ſubdued by Alexander, or both put together, as may be ſeen by turning to the table, page 27.

| | Ruſſian Empire in Europe. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Greek Church. | Ruſ. or Muſ. | 784,650 | 1160 | 1050 | Moſcow. | |
| | Belgorod, ... | 72,900 | 375 | 285 | Waronetz. | |
| | Don Coſſacs, | 57,000 | 400 | 280 | Panchina. | |
| | Uk. Coſſacs, | 45,000 | 330 | 205 | Kiow. | |
| | Lapland, ... | 72,000 | 405 | 270 | Kola. | |
| Conquered from Sweden ſince 1700. | Ruſ. Finland, | 41,310 | 320 | 180 | Wyburg. | |
| | Livonia,..... | 21,525 | 218 | 145 | Riga. | |
| | Ingria, ..... | 9,100 | 175 | 90 | PETERSBURG. | N. Lat. 60. E.L. 30-25 |
| Seized from the Turks in 1783. | Crim Tar. ... | 8,200 | 160 | 15 | Kaffa. | |
| | Ruſſian Empire in Aſia. | | | | | |
| Chriſtians and Idolaters. | Muſcovy, Tartary, & Siberia, | 2,000,000 | 3150 | 1500 | Tobolſki. | |
| | Kalm. Tart.... | 850,000 | 2100 | 750 | Aſtracan. | |
| By the partition Treaties between the Emper. Pruſſia, & Ruſſia. | Lithuania and part of Poland, | 64,000 | 300 | 250 | Grodno. | |
| | Total | 4,025,685 | | | | |

Ruſſia takes its name from the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi, a Sclavonic tribe. The word Muſcovy is derived from the river Moſca, on which the ancient capital Moſcow ſtands. The country, according to its ſituation and climate, is divided into the northern, middle, and ſouthern regions; which are again divided into governments, named after thoſe towns in which courts of judicature are eſtabliſhed. The northern diviſion contains the governments of St. Peterſburg, Archangel, Olonetz, Vybourg, Revel, Riga, Pſcov, Tver Novgorod, Vologda, Yaroſtavi Koſtroma, Viatka, Perme, Tobolſk. The middle diviſion contains the governments of Moſcov, or Moſcow, generally called Moſqua by the Ruſſians, Smolenſk, Polotſk, Mooghilev, Tchermigow, Novgorod, and Sieverſkoy, Kharkov, Kourſk, Orel, Kalouz, Toola, Riazane, Vladimer, Nezney-Novgorod, Kazane, Sinberſk, Penza, Tambov, Voronez, Saralov, Oufa, Kolkvane, Irkoutſk. The ſouthern diviſion contains the governments of Kiev, Ecatherinoſſav, Caucaſus, the province of Taurida, and the habitations of the Don Kozacks *.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. Hence there is in Muſcovy a vaſt diverſity both of ſoil and climate.

The ſeverity of the climate, in Ruſſia properly ſo called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Ruſſia, obſerves, that the cold in St. Peterſburg, by Fahrenheit's ſcale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, uſually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing-point; though commonly, in the courſe of the winter, it is for a week or ten days ſome degrees lower. The ſame writer remarks, that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold ſo great. It is ſuch, that, when a perſon walks out in that ſevere weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-laſhes. As the common peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice. The beard is therefore found very uſeful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the ſoldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to ſupply their place. All the parts of the face, which are expoſed, are very liable to be frozen: though it has often been obſerved, that the perſon himſelf does not know when the freezing begins, but is commonly told of it firſt by thoſe who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with ſnow, the uſual method to thaw it. It is alſo remarked that the part which has once been frozen is ever after moſt liable to be frozen again. In ſome very ſevere winters, ſparrows, though a hardy ſpecies of birds, have been ſeen quite numbed by the intenſe cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when ſitting on their loaded carriages, have ſometimes been found frozen to death in that poſture. When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, ſo as to ſpread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a ſolid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of ſtrong

* In this table, which is copied from the authentic work of captain Pleſchief, the ſpelling of the Ruſſian names is adapted to the Engliſh pronunciation, by his accurate tranſlator Mr. Smirnove, chaplain to the Ruſſian legation at the court of Great Britain.

ale has alſo been frozen in an hour and a half; but in this ſubſtance there was about a tea cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as ſtrong and inflammable as brandy and ſpirits of wine. But, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the cold in Ruſſia, the inhabitants have ſuch various means and proviſions to guard againſt it, that they ſuffer much leſs from it than might be expected. The houſes of perſons in tolerable circumſtances are ſo well protected, both without doors and within, that they are ſeldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houſes in Ruſſia is by an oven conſtructed with ſeveral flues; and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. Theſe ovens conſume a much ſmaller quantity of wood than might be imagined; and yet they ſerve at the ſame time for the ordinary people to dreſs their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and ſuffer it to burn only till the thickeſt black ſmoke is evaporated; they then ſhut down the chimney to retain all the reſt of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat twenty-four hours, and is commonly ſo warm that they ſit with very little covering, eſpecially children, who are uſually in their ſhirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very ſmall, that as little cold may be admitted as poſſible: in the houſes of perſons of condition, the windows are caulked up againſt winter, and commonly have double glaſs-frames. In ſhort, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactneſs, opening or ſhutting the flues to increaſe or diminiſh the heat. When the Ruſſians go out, they are clothed ſo warmly, that they almoſt bid defiance to froſt and ſnow; and it is obſervable that the wind is ſeldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage which the Ruſſians derive from the ſeverity of their climate, is the preſerving of proviſions by the froſt. Good houſewives, as ſoon as the froſt ſets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of ſnow between them, and then take them out for uſe as occaſion requires: by which means they ſave the nouriſhment of the animal for ſeveral months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Peterſburg, is eſteemed the fineſt they have; nor can it be diſtinguiſhed from what is freſh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Peterſburg are by this means ſupplied in winter with all manner of proviſions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible; and it is not a little curious to ſee the vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale. The method of thawing frozen proviſions in Ruſſia is by immerging them in cold water; for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it ſeems to occaſion a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice ſeems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as freſh as if juſt gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes ſo rancid and ſtrong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickneſs of vegetation in Ruſſia is pretty much the ſame as has been deſcribed in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The ſnow is the natural manure of Ruſſia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miſerably fed; the ſoil produces a vaſt number of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Ruſſia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and

melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Ruſſia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture, and ſupplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh-bones. Peter the Great, and his ſucceſſors down to the preſent time, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vaſt fertility in ſome provinces bids fair to make grain as common in Ruſſia as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The eaſy communication by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, ſerves to ſupply one province with thoſe products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Ruſſia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in ſome places, moſt of which produce the load-ſtone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich ſilver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Ruſſia is in general a flat level country, except towards the north, where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains; and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains extending on the ſea of Oral. And here it may be obſerved, that, from Peterſburg to Pekin, we ſhall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Peterſburg to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburg, and Amſterdam, we ſcarcely can perceive the ſmalleſt hill.

The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running eaſt and ſouth, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of 3000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea. It is reckoned one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe; producing many kinds of fiſh, and fertiliſing all the lands on each ſide with various trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all this long courſe there is not a ſingle cataract to interrupt the navigation; but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, the number of its iſles increaſes, and it divides itſelf into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: all theſe arms divide themſelves into others ſtill leſs, which join and meet again; ſo that the Wolga diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moſcow preſerves a communication, not only with all the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, but even with Perſia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caſpian Sea. The Don, or Tanaïs, divides the moſt eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia, and, in its courſe towards the eaſt, approaches ſo near the Wolga, that the czar Peter I. had undertaken to form a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruption of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its turnings and windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæötis, or ſea of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe. The Boryſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacs, and that of

the Nagaiſch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine or Black Sea, at Kinburn, near Oczakow: it has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance. To theſe may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itſelf at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its ſource near Uſtiaga, and, dividing itſelf into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

Foreſts abound in this extenſive country; and the northern and north-eaſtern provinces are in a manner deſert; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Chriſtians rather than Pagans.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. } Theſe do not differ greatly from thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavian provinces, to which we muſt refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creature it can maſter; and is ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſts. Hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribed, afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes and ermine are more valuable in Ruſſia than elſewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden known in many parts of Ruſſia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary purpoſes of life are but ſmall; as are their cows and ſheep.

We know of few or no birds in Ruſſia that have not been already deſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes, except that the Ruſſians are better provided than their neighbours with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, and beluga; the latter reſembles a ſturgeon, and is often called the large ſturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the ſturgeon and the beluga the Ruſſians make the famous caviare, ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-ſtone, which is concealed in that maſs of glandular fleſh which covers the poſterior parts of the dorſal ſpine, ſupplying the place of a kidney in fiſh. The inſtant it is taken from the fiſh it is ſoft and moiſt, but quickly hardens in the air. Its ſize is that of a hen's egg; in ſhape it is ſometimes oval, and ſometimes flatted, and commonly ſells for a ruble. This ſtone is ſuppoſed by profeſſor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fiſh: it holds a conſiderable rank, though with little merit, among the domeſtic remedies of the Ruſſians, who ſcrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diſeaſes of children, and other diſorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The new regiſter in 1764 contains 8,500,000 ſubject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer, reſident ſometime in Ruſſia, gives the following eſtimate:

| | |
|---|---|
| Lower claſs of people paying capitation tax, | 18,000,000 |
| Conquered provinces, | 1,200,000 |
| Noble families, | 60,000 |
| Clergy, | 100,000 |
| Military, | 360,000 |
| Civil, | 30,000 |
| Ukraine, Siberia, Coſſacs, &c. | 350,000 |
| | 20,100,000 |

To theſe muſt now be added near a million more, by the acquiſitions of the Crimea, and a part of Cuban Tartary; and at leaſt 1,500,000 in the provinces diſmembered from Poland.

As his imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias poſſeſſes many of the countries whence the prodigious ſwarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire iſſued, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe that his dominions muſt have been better peopled formerly than they are at preſent; twenty-four millions are but a thin population for the immenſe tract of country he poſſeſſes. Perhaps the introduction of the ſmall-pox and the venereal diſeaſe may have aſſiſted in the depopulation: it is probable alſo, that the prodigious quantity of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquors, conſumed by the inhabitants of the North, is unfriendly to generation.

The Ruſſians, properly ſo called, are in general a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned, probably, by the ſnow, which for a long time of the year is continually preſent to their eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive valour; but in the late war with the king of Pruſſia they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; endure extreme hardſhips with great patience: and can content themſelves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenneſs. No leſs than 4000 brandy-ſhops have been reckoned in Moſcow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual ſtate of idleneſs and intoxication; and the moſt complete objects of miſery and barbarity appeared in the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow was the moſt ſplendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dreſſed after the moſt ſuperb Aſiatic manner; and their magnificence was aſtoniſhing. The earl of Carliſle, in the account of his embaſſy, ſays, that he could ſee nothing but gold and precious ſtones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of thoſe and all other luxuries were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter ſaw the bulk of his ſubjects, at his acceſſion to the throne, little better than beaſts of burden, deſtined to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Ruſſians, before this time, had ſcarcely a ſhip upon their coaſts. They had no convenience for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a ſovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent a French or Engliſh gentleman may make a ſhift to live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia as in moſt other parts of Europe. Their polite aſſemblies, ſince the acceſſion of the late empreſs, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient uſages remain. It is, however, to be obſerved, that, notwithſtanding the ſeverities of Peter and the prudence of ſucceeding governments, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among all ranks: nor are even prieſts or ladies aſhamed of it on holidays.

The Ruſſians were formerly noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign countries. This, however, was only the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at

every court in Europe. Her late imperial majeſty intereſted herſelf in the education of young men of quality, in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly that of the Britiſh fleet.

It is ſaid that the Ruſſian ladies were formerly as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they thought themſelves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſented to their huſbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents have agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is critically examined by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defect they find in her perſon. On her wedding-day ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon her head, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even amongſt the lower ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage-contract.

Funerals.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſſed, a prieſt is hired to pray for the ſoul, to purify the corpſe with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by their biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. This is put into the coffin, between the fingers of the corpſe; after which the company return to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication, which laſts, among the better ſort, with a few intervals, forty days. During that time a prieſt every day recites prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer in his long journey to the place of his deſtination after this life.

Punishments.] The Ruſſians are remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death, hundreds, nay thouſands, at a time. The ſingle and double knout have been inflicted upon ladies as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating: but in the double knout the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pully, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders; and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner with a hard thong cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient to pronounce the moment it ſhould ceaſe. It is not always the number of the ſtrokes, but the method of applying them, which occaſions the death of a criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four ſtrokes, by ſtriking him upon the ribs; though perſons are ſometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred ſtrokes moderately inflicted. The boring

and cutting out of the tongue are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia; and even the empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the ſuppoſed neceſſity of thoſe tortures.

According to the ſtrict letter of the law, there are no capital puniſhments in Ruſſia, except in the caſe of high treaſon: but there is much leſs humanity in this than has been ſuppoſed. For there are many felons who expire under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardſhips they ſuffer in the mines; ſo that there is reaſon to believe that no fewer criminals ſuffer death in Ruſſia than in thoſe countries where capital puniſhments are authoriſed by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and forehead marked, are ſometimes ſentenced for life to the public works at Cronſtadt, Viſhnei-Volotchok, and other places: but the common practice is to ſend them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerſhink. There are, upon an average, from 1600 to 2000 convicts at theſe mines. The greateſt part are confined in barracks, excepting thoſe who are married: the latter being permitted to build huts near the mines, for themſelves and families. The prohibition of the torture does honour to the late empreſs Catharine II.

Travelling.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Ruſſia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expenſe very trifling. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, the Ruſſians travel in ſledges made of the bark of the linden tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Ruſſia, horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledge-way, towards February, becomes ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of a coach upon the ſledges, in which they may lie at full length, and ſo travel night and day, wrapt up in good furs. In this manner they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Peterſburg and Moſcow, in three days and nights. Her late imperial majeſty, in her journeys, was drawn in a houſe which contained a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniences, for four people, by 24 poſt-horſes; and the houſe itſelf was fixed on a ſledge.

Different Nations subject to Russia. } As the preſent ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, are the deſcendents of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, ſo we find among them a vaſt variety of character and manners: and the great reformation introduced of late years, as well as the diſcoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Ruſſian dominions, now live in fixed houſes and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other ſubjects. Till lately they were not admitted into the Ruſſian armies; but now they make excellent ſoldiers. Other Ruſſian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both ſides of the Wolga are inhabited by Tſchermiſes and Morduars, a peaceable, induſtrious people. The Baſkirs are likewiſe fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kaſan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the reſt of the tract to Aſtracan, and the frontiers of the Uſbecs; and, in conſideration of certain preſents they receive from the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, they ſerve in their armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Coſſacs*, who lately made a figure in the military hiſtory of Europe,

were originally Poliſh peaſants, and ſerved in the Ukraine, as a militia againſt the Tartars. Being oppreſſed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them moved to the uncultivated banks of the Don or Tanaïs, and there eſtabliſhed a colony. They were ſoon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Aſoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in aſhes. They next put themſelves under the protection of the Ruſſians, built Circaſka, on an iſland in the Don; and their poſſeſſions, which conſiſted of thirty-nine towns on both ſides that river, reached from Ribna to Aſoph. They cultivated the country, but were ſo wedded to their original cuſtoms, that they were little better than nominal ſubjects to the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They profeſſed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occaſionally ſerved againſt the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The character of the Tartars of Kaſan may ſerve for that of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally ſtraight and well made, have ſmall faces, with freſh complexions, and a ſprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of very moderate capacity. They are ſober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatneſs. The Tartarian women are of a wholeſome complexion rather than handſome, and of a good conſtitution: from their earlieſt infancy they are accuſtomed to labour, retirement, modeſty, and ſubmiſſion. The Tartars of Kaſan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to ſobriety, and to a ſtrict obſervance of the manners of their anceſtors. They are taught to read and write, and are inſtructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the ſmalleſt village has its chapel, ſchool, prieſt, and ſchool-maſter; though ſome of theſe prieſts and ſchoolmaſters are not much ſkilled in the Arabic language. The beſt Tartarian academies in the Ruſſian empire are thoſe of Kaſan, Tobolſk, and Aſtracan, which are under the direction of the gagouns, or high-prieſts. It is not uncommon to find ſmall collections of hiſtorical anecdotes in manuſcript, in the huts of the boors: and their merchants, beſides what thoſe little libraries contain, are pretty extenſively acquainted with the hiſtory of their own people, and that of the circumjacent ſtates, with the antiquities of each. Such as chooſe to make a progreſs in theology, enter themſelves into the ſchools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kaſan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exerciſe ſeveral trades, and have ſome manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely ſeen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterpriſing; but as they extend their connexions by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of buſineſs, which their parſimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kaſan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England Morocco-leather. The villages of theſe people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Moſt of them alſo contain tanners, ſhoe-makers, tailors, dyers, ſmiths, and carpenters.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villagers of Aſtracan are perfectly ſimilar with thoſe of the Tartars of Kaſan. In the city of Aſtracan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and ſeveral ſhops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Perſians, Indians, Bougharians: and

their manufactories of Morocco-leather, cotton, camelots, and ſilks, are in a very thriving ſtate.

The *Finns* are of Aſiatic origin, and have a cloſe reſemblance to the Laplanders, but are more civiliſed, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have ſchools and academies, and have made ſome progreſs in the arts and ſciences. They profeſs the Lutheran faith, and uſe the Chriſtian æra in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exerciſe moſt of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fiſhing. They are great eaters, making five meals a-day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a conſiderable degree of freedom, as the Ruſſian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Votiaks*, who are a Finniſh race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viatka, in the government of Kaſan. Some of the Votiaks are Chriſtians, but great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even theſe believe the doctrine of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments.

The *Oſtiaks*, who are likewiſe a Finniſh race, are one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in ſubjection to Ruſſia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their deſcendents are ſtill reputed noble. Theſe people divide themſelves into different ſtocks or tribes: they chooſe their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. Theſe maintain peace and good order, and ſuperintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the uſe of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the caſe of other Finniſh nations.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle ſtature, have generally black hair, and a ſcanty beard. Their principal occupation is the chaſe, in which they diſcover much eagerneſs and addreſs; uſing indiſcriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the ſpear. They are alſo ſkilful in contriving traps, ſnares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tſchouwaſches* dwell along the two ſides of the Wolga, in the governments of Viſchnei-Novgorod, Kaſan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but aſſemble in ſmall villages, and chooſe the foreſts for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpoſe ſcrew-barrel muſkets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her huſband's boots. A late writer ſays, "Among the Tſchou-"waſches the huſband is maſter of the houſe; he orders every thing "himſelf; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply."

The *Kirguiſians* have a frank and prepoſſeſſing air, ſimilar to that which characteriſes the Tartars of Kaſan. They have a ſharp but not a fierce look, and ſmaller eyes than thoſe Tartars. They have good natural ſenſe, and are affable, and high-ſpirited, but fond of their eaſe, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deſerts in ſearch of paſturage for their flocks and herds, which conſtitutes their principal occupation. The decoration of their horſes employs them almoſt as much as that of their perſons; they having generally elegant ſaddles, handſome houſings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters, and they alſo ſmoke tobacco to exceſs. Men, women, and children, all ſmoke, and take ſnuff: they keep the latter in little horns faſtened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the ſame manner as the reſt of the people, and are diſtinguiſhed only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades,

and the quantity of huts which ſurround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and ſlaves.

The *Tunguſians* form one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle ſtature, well made, and of a good mien. Their ſight and hearing are of a degree of acuteneſs and delicacy that is almoſt incredible; but their organs of ſmelling and feeling are conſiderably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almoſt every tree and ſtone within the circuit of their uſual perambulation; and they can even deſcribe a courſe of ſome hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and ſtones they meet with, and can enable others to take the ſame route by ſuch deſcriptions. They alſo diſcover the tracks of the game by the compreſſion of the graſs or moſs. They learn foreign languages with eaſe, are alert on horſeback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the moſt part raw-boned and ſtout. Their viſage is ſo flat, that the ſkull of a Calmuc may be eaſily known from others. They have thick lips, a ſmall noſe, and a ſhort chin, the complexion a reddiſh and yellowiſh brown. Their cloathing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chineſe. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their noſtrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of diſtemper or age, and though the fleſh be putrid; ſo that in every horde the fleſh-market has the appearance of a lay-ſtall of carrion; they eat likewiſe the roots and plants of their deſerts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both ſexes ſmoke continually: during the ſummer they remain in the northern, and in the winter in the ſouthern deſerts. They ſleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themſelves with the ſame.

The *Kamtſchadales* have a lively imagination, a ſtrong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fiſhing. The chaſe furniſhes them with ſables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fiſhing, and are well acquainted with the proper ſeaſons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domeſtic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchadalian equipage, dogs, harneſs, and all, coſts in that country near twenty rubles, or 4l. 10s. The Kamtſchadales believed the immortality of the ſoul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the chriſtian religion. They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance, and extremely ſingular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly ſo barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European uſages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this forlorn region, ſo long unknown to Europe, ſome new mines have lately been diſcovered, which, upon their firſt opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine ſilver, ſaid to have been obtained with little difficulty or expenſe. But Kamtſchatka is now conſidered as the moſt horrid place of exile in the vaſt empire of Ruſſia; and here ſome of the greateſt criminals are ſent.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to

be diſcuſſed here; but the great article of faith by which that church has been ſo long ſeparated from the Latin or Catholic church, is the doctrine that the Holy Spirit does not proceed from the Father and the Son, but from the Father only. They deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image-worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints, whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly: an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for the ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments. They oblige their biſhops, but not their prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhowed his profound knowledge in government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch and the great clergy. He declared himſelf the head of the church, and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend, for ſubſiſtence, upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off their beards: that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the emperor Peter III. and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his time, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents: nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. The abuſes of them, however, are in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without permiſſion of their ſuperiors.

The conquered provinces, as already obſerved, retain the exerciſe of their own religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flouriſhing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta; the beginning of the ſettlement was in 1765, with diſtinguiſhed privileges from the imperial court.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Ruſſia is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, however, and the moſt learned clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek: and they who are acquainted with the ancient language in its purity, may eaſily acquire the knowledge of it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have thirty-ſix letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Ruſſians have hitherto made but an inconſiderable figure in the republic of letters: but the great encouragement lately given by their ſovereigns, in the inſtitution of academies and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs that they are no way deficient in intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them at their academical meetings have been favourably received all over Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novgorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal, at the opening of the commiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical: and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire ſince the beginning of this century, with the ſpecimens of literature publiſhed both at Peterſburg and Moſcow, is an evidence that the Ruſſians are not unqualified to ſhine in the arts and ſci-

ences. The efforts to civiliſe them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A ſmall glimmering, like the firſt day-break, was ſeen under czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conſpicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz; but under Peter it burſt forth with the ſplendor of a riſing ſun, and has continued ever ſince to aſcend towards its meridian.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries, who furniſh medicines not only to the army but all over the empire. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high-chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an univerſity in this city. The late empreſs Catharine II. alſo founded an univerſity at Peterſburg, and invited ſome of the moſt learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good ſalaries; and alſo a military academy, where the young nobility and officers' ſons are taught the art of war. It ought alſo to be mentioned, to the honour of the ſame royal benefactreſs, that ſhe founded a number of ſchools for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, throughout the beſt-inhabited parts of the empire.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS.] Peterſburg naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its ſituation by being informed that it ſtands on both ſides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city conſiſted of a few ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo wateriſh and ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands, by which its principal quarters are ſtill divided. Without entering into too minute a deſcription of this wonderful city, it is ſufficient to ſay that it extends about ſix miles every way, and contains every ſtructure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that is to be found in the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. But there is a convent which deſerves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated; 200 of them of ſuperior rank, and the others daughters of citizens and tradeſmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements ſuitable to their conditions of life; and thoſe of the lower claſs are preſented with a ſum of money, as a dowry if they marry, or to ſecure to themſelves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a foundling-hoſpital, aſſiſtant to that noble one eſtabliſhed at Moſcow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately; after which ſhe leaves the child to the ſtate, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Peterſburg is the emporium of Ruſſia, the number of foreign ſhips trading to it in the ſummer-time is ſurpriſing. In winter 3000 one-horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets. It is ſuppoſed that there are 150,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almoſt every ſect of the Chriſtian religion is tolerated. It alſo contains five palaces, ſome of which are ſuperb, particularly that which is called the New Summer-Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on the ſide next the ſea by the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, which, conſidering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is ſuffi-

cient to guard it on that ſide from the attempts of any enemy. Peterſburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conqueſts from the Swedes. In the neighbourhood of this city are numerous country-houſes and gardens.

The city of Moſcow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it ſtill continues conſiderable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It ſtands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from which it takes its name, in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-eaſt of London. Though its ſtreets are not regular, it preſents a very picturesque appearance; for it contains ſuch a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and ſtreams, that it ſeems rather to be a cultivated country, than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not atteſted by the moſt unqueſtionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated ſtate of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater luſtre in a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Buſching gives us any ſatisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, each quarter inhabited by a different order or profeſſion. Buſching ſpeaks of it as the largeſt city in Europe: but that can be only meant as to the ground it ſtands on, computed to be ſixteen miles in circumference. It is generally admitted, that Moſcow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three palaces or ſquares. The merchants' exchange, according to Buſching, contains about 6000 fine ſhops, which diſplay a vaſt parade of commerce, eſpecially to and from China. No city exhibits a greater contraſt than Moſcow, of magnificence and meanneſs in building. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are miſerable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are ſpacious and lofty. The Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures in the world: it ſtands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleaſure-houſe, and ſtables, a victualling-houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four pariſh churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt or covered with ſilver; the architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The cathedral has nine towers, covered with copper, double-gilt, and contains a ſilver branch with forty-eight lights, ſaid to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would ſcarcely ſuffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this city. Its ſumptuous monuments of the great-dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble ſtructures. They have a barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Baſilides ordered the architect of the church of Jeruſalem to be deprived of his eye-ſight, that he might never contrive its equal. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the Virgin Mary, in the Kremlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what was ſeen at the famous Holy Houſe of Loretto in Italy. M Voltaire ſays, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moſcow at the time he was building Peterſburg; for he cauſed it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The foundling-hoſpital at Moſcow is an excellent inſtitution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the late empreſs, and is ſupported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and

other charitable endowments. It is an immenſe pile of building, of a quadrangular ſhape, and contains 3000 foundlings: when completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen have the liberty of chooſing any trade; for which purpoſe there are different ſpecies of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the hoſpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeſhip, or have arrived at the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of ſetting up for themſelves; a ſum of money is beſtowed upon each foundling for that purpoſe, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruſſian empire. This is a very conſiderable privilege in Ruſſia, where the peaſants are ſlaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permiſſion of their maſters.

Nothing can be ſaid with certainty as to the population of Moſcow. When lord Carliſle was the Engliſh embaſſador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was twelve miles in compaſs, and the number of houſes was computed at 40,000. When Voltaire wrote, Moſcow was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants amounted to 500,000. Mr. Coxe confirms the account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the eſtimate of its population much exaggerated: according to an account which was given to him by an Engliſh gentleman, which he received from a lieutenant of the police, and which he ſays may be relied on, Moſcow contains within the ramparts 250,000 ſouls, and in the adjacent villages 50,000. Two French travellers, who were there in 1792, ſay, its population conſiſts of from 300,000 to 328,000 ſouls, in ſummer; but in winter is increaſed to nearly 400,000. *Voyage de Deux Français.*

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Ruſſia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civiliſed nations. She can, however, produce many ſtupendous monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns; particularly her canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old ſepulchres of an unknown nation, whoſe inſtruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural hiſtory at Peterſburg, is a rhinoceros, dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his ſkin, and the hair upon it, perfect. The Ruſſians are extremely fond of the ringing of bells, which are always to be heard tinkling in every quarter. The great bell of Moſcow weighs, according to Mr. Coxe, "432,000 pounds, "and exceeds in bigneſs every bell in the known world. Its ſize "is ſo enormous," ſays that writer, "that I could ſcarcely have "given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not ex- "amined it myſelf, and aſcertained its dimenſions with great exact- "neſs. Its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom "twenty-one yards eleven inches, its greateſt thickneſs twenty-three "inches." It was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne: but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; ſo that it lately lay in a manner uſeleſs. Mr. Bruce in his Memoirs mentions a bell at Moſcow, founded in the czar Boris's time, nineteen feet high, twenty-three in diameter, and two in thickneſs, and weighing 330,000 pounds. The building of Peterſburg, and raiſing it on a ſudden from a few fiſhing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps an enterpriſe hardly to be paralleled in antiquity. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburg, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city employed for ſome years 300,000 men in laying its foundation, and driving piles night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little

aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people, at the time when they could hardly be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in perſon in all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE, AND MARITIME FORCE. According to the beſt information, the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to about 2,400,000l. and her imports do not exceed 1,600,000l.; ſo that the balance of trade is yearly 800,000l. ſterling in her favour*.

The productions and exports of Ruſſia, in general, are many, and very valuable; viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, ſail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, iſinglaſs, linſeed-oil, pot-aſh, ſoap, feathers, train-oil, hog's briſtles, muſk, rhubarb, and other drugs, timber, and alſo raw ſilk from China and Perſia.

Her foreign commerce is much increaſed ſince her conqueſts from Sweden, eſpecially of Livonia and Ingria, and ſince the eſtabliſhing of the new emporium of Peterſburg, whereby her naval intercourſe with Europe is made much more ſhort and eaſy. The Ukraine may be called the granary of the empire: the beſt corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 head of horned cattle are annually ſent from its paſtures into Sileſia and Saxony.

Ruſſia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence tea, ſilk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bochary, near the river Oxus in Tartary, Ruſſia ſends her own merchandiſe, in return for Indian ſilks, curled lamb-ſkins, and ready money; and alſo to the annual fair at Samarcand: ſhe likewiſe trades to Perſia by Aſtracan, acroſs the Caſpian ſea, for raw and wrought ſilk. The late empreſs, in 1784, iſſued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by ſea and land with the ſeveral countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The ſame privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherſon, Sebaſtopolis, and Theodoſia (formerly Caffa) in the province of Taurica, as in Peterſburg.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Ruſſia had with the reſt of Europe; but it was ſubject to a long and tempeſtuous voyage. They have now thirteen ports, Archangel, Peterſburg, Riga, Revel, Perneau, Narva, Wibourg, Frederickſham, Aſtracan, and Kola, and the three opened in their new conqueſts. This town is about three Engliſh miles in length, and one in breadth, built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of ſtone. Notwithſtanding the decreaſe of the trade of Archangel ſince thebuilding of Peterſburg, it ſtill exports a conſiderable quantity of merchandiſe. Their maſts and timber for the dock-yards come chiefly from the foreſts of Caſan, that border on the province of Aſtracan.

The army is generally calculated to amount to from 400 to 450,000 men: according to Buſching, it amounted, in 1772, to above 600,000; and, according to an eſtimate taken in 1784, it then amounted to 368,901†.

* Coxe's Travels, vol. ii. p. 247.

† The French travellers before quoted remark on this head: "If we rely on the gazettes, we ſhall eſtimate the forces of the Ruſſian empire at more than 500,000 men; and be led into no ſmall error. The armies of that power have never exceeded 150,000 men in both cavalry and infantry. This is the greateſt effort the empire can make. The irregular troops and regiments in garriſon are not included in this eſtimate."

The Ruſſian navy in the harbours of Cronſtadt, Revel, and Archangel, in the year 1792, conſiſted of 50 ſhips of the line, of which 8 were of 110 guns, and the reſt of 74 and 66; 27 frigates of 28, 32, and 38 guns; 50 galleys, 300 gun-boats, 16 fire-ſhips, and other ſmaller veſſels; beſides a fleet in the Black Sea, conſiſting of 17 ſhips of the line, and a ſtill greater number of frigates, corvettes, &c. Twenty thouſand ſailors are kept in conſtant pay and ſervice, either on board the ſhips or in the dock-yards. The harbour at Cronſtadt, ſeven leagues from Petersburg, is defended on one ſide by a fort of four baſtions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large baſon will contain near 600 ſail of ſhips.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND DISTINCTION OF RANK. The ſovereign of the Ruſſian empire is abſolute and deſpotic in the fulleſt extent of thoſe terms, and maſter of the lives and properties of all his ſubjects, who, though they are of the firſt nobility, or have been highly inſtrumental in promoting the welfare of the ſtate, may notwithſtanding, for the moſt trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be ſeized upon and ſent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiſcated, whenever the ſovereign or his miniſters ſhall think proper. Perſons of any rank may be baniſhed into Siberia, for the ſlighteſt political intrigue; and their poſſeſſions being confiſcated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the inſinuations of an artful courtier. The ſecret court of chancery, which was a tribunal compoſed of a few miniſters choſen by the ſovereign, had the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy. But this court was ſuppreſſed by Peter III.

The ſyſtem of civil laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia is very imperfect, and in many inſtances barbarous and unjuſt; being an aſſemblage of laws and regulations drawn from moſt of the ſtates of Europe, ill digeſted, and in many reſpects not at all adapted to the genius of the Ruſſian nation. But the late empreſs made ſome attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of juſtice were in general very corrupt, and thoſe by whom it was adminiſtered extremely ignorant; but the judicious regulations of Catharine II. fixed a certain ſalary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients; and thus the poor were without hope or remedy.

The diſtinctions of rank form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſs took the title of Autocratrix, which implies that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes, or knazes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates, till theſe were reduced by the czar: but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the late empreſſes introduced among their ſubjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility that are common to the reſt of Europe.

REVENUE AND EXPENSES.] Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her late imperial majeſty, muſt have greatly added to their income, which, many years ago, was little leſs than

30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly ſix millions ſterling annually; thus computed:

| | Rubles. |
|---|---|
| Capitation tax - - - - - - - | 8,500,000 |
| Other taxes and duties - - - - - | 7,000,000 |
| The crown-lands, with other domains taken from the clergy | 6,000,000 |
| Produce of the mines - - - - - | 1,500,000 |
| Monopoly of diſtilled liquors - - | 4,000,000 |
| Monopoly of ſalt - - - - - - | 1,800,000 |
| | 28,800,000 |

According to Mr. Pleſcheef's computation, publiſhed in Engliſh by the reverend Mr. Smirnove, the revenues of Ruſſia exceed 40,000,000 of rubles; and the expenſes, even in time of war, are ſaid not to amount to 30,000,000. The two French travellers, who were in Ruſſia in 1792, eſtimate the whole revenue of the empire to have been little leſs than 60,000,000 of rubles, or nearly 12,000,000l. ſterling.

When this ſum is conſidered relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, it will be found a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the two late empreſſes, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do we find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. In 1733, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the ſum total is ſaid to have amounted only to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to 4s. 6d. ſterling). This income was at that time ſufficient to maintain 339,500 men, employed in the land and ſea ſervice. The other expenſes, beſide the payment of the army and navy of the late empreſs, the number and diſcipline of which were at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, were very conſiderable. Her court was elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid; and the encouragement ſhe gave to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſt her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expenſes of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies, which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterpriſe undertaken by Peter the Great was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in ſeiſing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required that the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy are taxed in Ruſſia; but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed with little or no expenſe, and, while in their own country, ſubſiſt chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people according to their internal valuation. The pay of a ſoldier ſcarcely amounts to thirty ſhillings yearly; in garriſon he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a ſailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found with proviſions when on ſhore.

ORDERS.] The order of St. *Andrew* was inſtituted by Peter the Great, in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers in his wars againſt the Turks.

He choſe St. Andrew for his patron, becauſe by tradition he was the founder of Chriſtianity in the country. The knights are perſons of the firſt rank in the empire. The order of St. *Alexander Newſki* was alſo inſtituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empreſs Catharine I. in the year 1725. The order of St. *Catharine* was inſtituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empreſs, for her aſſiſtance on the banks of the Pruth. The order of St. *George*, inſtituted by the late empreſs Catharine II. in favour of the military officers in her ſervice. The order of St. *Wolodemir* was inſtituted October 3d, 1782, by the late empreſs, in favour of thoſe who ſerve in a civil capacity. The order of St. *Anne* of Holſtein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great, was introduced into Ruſſia by Peter III.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent were formerly rich and populous. The reader who caſts his eyes on the general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Aſiatic part of Ruſſia bordered on Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in hiſtory; and nothing is more certain than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the ninth century; but they have a tradition, that Kiovia and Novgorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by ſome conſidered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a ſimple boatman, who uſed to tranſport goods and paſſengers acroſs the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the ſmalleſt degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, higher than the introduction of Chriſtianity, which happened about the tenth century, when the princeſs of this country, called Olba, is ſaid to have been baptiſed at Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of the alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptiſe the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church; and its biſhops erected themſelves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubjected by the Tartars. About this time John or Iwan Baſilides conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is ſaid to have taken 300 cart-loads of gold and ſilver. His proſperous reign of forty years gave a new aſpect to Ruſſia.

His grandſon, the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Kaſan and Aſtracan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſthonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, "great "prince," great lord, or great chief; which the Chriſtian nations at-

erwards rendered by that of great-duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, Czar (a word which ſignifies emperor, and is probably derived from the Roman *Cæſar*) was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns. Upon the death of Joh nBaſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled by a ſet of weak, cruel princes: and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had eſcaped from his murderers: and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles, and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him), he drove out the uſurper and ſeiſed the crown himſelf. The impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him; and he was murdered. Three other falſe Demetrius's ſtarted up, one after another.

Theſe impoſtures prove the deſpicable ſtate of ignorance in which the Ruſſians were immerged. The country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes, but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair ſo late as the year 1613. The independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed. Uladiſlaus, ſon of Sigiſmund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch, that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended from the ancient ſovereigns of Ruſſia, had been ſent embaſſador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Ruſſian tyrants, and there was detained priſoner, under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus. The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes, and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in a nunnery, that they elected their ſon Michael Fædorowitz, of the houſe of Romanoff, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Ruſſia; and being created patriarch by his ſon, reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claim of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Ruſſia occaſioned a war between thoſe two people, which gave Michael a kind of breathing-time; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. He reigned thirty three years; and by his wiſdom, and the mildneſs of his character, reſtored eaſe and tranquillity to his ſubjects. It here may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of the nation. His czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czar, and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared by ſending her magnificent jewels and a wedding-robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father who pleaſed Michael was Streſchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in

his wars with the Swedes. When the grand-ſignor, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his anſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and that "his ſcymitar was as good as the grand-ſignor's ſabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and ſciences, of which he was himſelf a lover; publiſhed a code of laws, ſome of which are ſtill uſed in the adminiſtration of juſtice; and greatly improved his army by eſtabliſhing diſcipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of ſtrangers, moſt of whom were Scotch. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſacs, named Stenko Raſin, who endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his dominions; and, inſtead of putting to death or enſlaving his Lithuanian, Poliſh, and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore ſucceeded his father Alexius in 1667. He reigned ſeven years; and having on his death-bed called his boyars around him, in the preſence of his brother and ſiſter, Iwan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards ſo celebrated, and who was his half-brother, he ſaid to them, "Hear my laſt ſentiments; they are "dictated by my love for the ſtate, and by my affection for my peo-"ple. The bodily infirmities of Iwan neceſſarily muſt affect his men-"tal faculties; he is incapable of ruling an empire like that of Ruſſia; "he cannot take it amiſs if I recommend to you to ſet him aſide, and "let your approbation fall on Peter, who, to a robuſt conſtitution, joins "great ſtrength of mind, and marks of a ſuperior underſtanding." But this wiſe deſtination extremely offended the princeſs Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a horrible ſedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the ſtanding army of Ruſſia. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birth-right, and exerciſed the government herſelf with the greateſt ſeverity and inhumanity; for all the Ruſſian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom ſhe ſuppoſed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The inſtances given of her barbarous adminiſtration are ſhocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint ſovereigns, and their ſiſter, their aſſociate co-regent. Her adminiſtration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durſt ſhe venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other inſurgents. Finding this debility in her own perſon, ſhe intended to have married prince Baſil Galitzin, who is ſaid to have been a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and ſome learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Chin Tartary; but Peter now was about 17 years of age, and aſſerted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moſcow; and upon Peter's publiſhing aloud that a conſpiracy had been formed by his ſiſter to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or deſtroyed Sophia's party, and forced herſelf to retire to a monaſtery. Galitzin's life was ſpared; but his great eſtate was confiſcated, and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment: "Thou art commanded by the "moſt clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and "there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his "extreme goodneſs, allows thee three pence per day for thy ſubſiſt-"ence." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and eaſy Iwan; and upon his death, which happened

in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future ſecurity, by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated through the jealouſy of his ſiſter, aſſociated himſelf with the Germans and Dutch; with the former for the ſake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their ſkill in navigation, which he practiſed himſelf. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raiſed a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exerciſes of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the inſolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He ſet out as an attendant upon his own embaſſadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inſerted here. By working as a common ſhip-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation; and through the excellent diſcipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only overawed or cruſhed all civil inſurrections, but all his enemies on this ſide of Aſia; and at laſt he even exterminated, excepting two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both by ſea and land; and the many defeats which he received, eſpecially that from Charles XII. at Narva, ſeemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he loſt rendered him at length a conqueror, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendſhip he ſhowed to Auguſtus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank diſtinct from merit; and he at laſt married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swediſh ſoldier; becauſe, after a long cohabitation, he found her poſſeſſed of a ſoul formed to execute his plans and to aſſiſt his councils. Catharine was ſo much a ſtranger to her own country, that her huſband afterwards diſcovered her brother, who ſerved as a common ſoldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which ſucceeded one another after the battle of Pultowa in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glory of Peter's reign. He applied himſelf with equal aſſiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences; and, upon the whole, he made ſuch acquiſitions of dominion, even in Europe itſelf, that he may be ſaid at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the moſt powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his ſubjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldeſt ſon, who in Ruſſia is entitled the Czarowitz, and who, marrying without his conſent, entered, as his father alleged, into ſome dangerous practices againſt his perſon and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a ſovereign ſo deſpotic as Peter was, it is difficult to determine on the juſtice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will that the young prince ſhould be found guilty; and the very reading of the ſentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is ſaid, that, as ſoon as ſentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, in which were the following words, "The divine, eccleſiaſtical, civil and mili-" tary law, condemns to death, without mercy, all thoſe whoſe attempts " againſt their father and their ſovereign are manifeſt," he fell into the

moſt violent convulſions, from which it was with great difficulty that he regained a little interval of ſenſe, during which he deſired his father would come to ſee him; when he aſked his pardon, and ſoon after died. According to other accounts, he was ſecretly executed in priſon, and marſhal Weyde was the perſon who beheaded him. After this event, in 1724, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the ſame magnificent ceremonies as if ſhe had been a Greek empreſs, and to be recogniſed as his ſucceſſor; which ſhe accordingly was, and mounted the Ruſſian throne upon the deceaſe of her huſband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, ſon to the czarowitz. Many domeſtic revolutions happened in Ruſſia during the ſhort reign of this prince; but none were more remarkable than the diſgrace and exile of of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe. Peter II. died of the ſmall pox, in 1730.

Notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, the Ruſſian ſenate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to ſet aſide the order of ſucceſſion which they had eſtabliſhed. The male iſſue of Peter was now extinguiſhed; and the duke of Holſtein, ſon to the eldeſt daughter, was, by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to the crown; but the Ruſſians, for political reaſons, filled their throne with Anne, ducheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldeſt brother, though her eldeſt ſiſter, the ducheſs of Mecklenburg, was alive. Her reign was extremely proſperous; and though ſhe accepted the throne under limitations that ſome thought derogatory to her dignity, yet ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſtors, and puniſhed the aſpiring Dologorucki family, who had impoſed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is ſaid, that they themſelves might govern. She raiſed her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many ſevere executions on his account. Upon her death in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece the princeſs of Mecklenburg, by Anthony Ulric of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttle, was, by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion; but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the empire during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princeſs of Mecklenburg and her huſband, and unpopular among the Ruſſians. Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklenburg to arreſt Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was ſent into exile to Siberia.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburg and her huſband was, on many accounts, but particularly that of her German connexions, diſagreeable, not only to the Ruſſians, but to other powers of Europe: and notwithſtanding a proſperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was declared and proclaimed empreſs of the Ruſſias; and the princeſs of Mecklenburg, her huſband. and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorious than that of any of her predeceſſors, her father excepted. She aboliſhed capital puniſhments, and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, till her time unknown in Ruſſia: but at the ſame time ſhe puniſhed counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden, and ſettled, as we have already ſeen, the ſucceſſion to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the moſt equita-

ble foundation. Having glorioufly finifhed a war with Sweden, fhe reftored the natural order of fucceffion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holftein-Gottorp, who was defcended from her eldeft fifter, her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Ruffia; and, foon after her acceffion to the throne, called him to her court, where he renounced the fucceffion of the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly was his right, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princefs of Anhalt-Zerbft, the late empref Catharine II. by whom he had a fon, who is the prefent emperor of Ruffia.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expenfe of a large fubfidy; but many political, and fome private reafons, it is faid, determined her to take part with the houfe of Auftria againft the king of Pruffia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the fortune of the war, which was in disfavour of Pruffia, notwithftanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her fuccefs was fuch as portended the entire deftruction of the Pruffian power, which was, perhaps, faved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was fucceeded by Peter III. grand-duke of Ruffia, and duke of Holftein, a prince whofe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poffeffed of an enthufiaftic admiration of his Pruffian majefty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whofe principles and practices he feems to have adopted as the rule of his future reign. He might have furmounted the effects even of thofe peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Ruffia; but it is faid that he aimed at reformation in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durft not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is alfo alleged that he had formed a refolution to deftroy both the empref and her fon, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the fame authority which had placed the crown upon his head: even the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge that he had refolved to fhut up his wife and fon in a convent, to place his miftref upon the throne, and to change the order of fucceffion. The execution of his defigns was, however, prevented by an almoft general conſpiracy formed againft him, in which the empref took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince fcarcely knew an interval between the lofs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. His wife, the late Catharine II. was proclaimed empref.

The death of prince Iwan, fon to the princefs of Mecklenburg, was an act of ftate policy perfectly according with the means by which Catharine afcended the throne. This young prince, as foon as he came into the world, was defigned, though illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Ruffia, after the death of his great aunt, the empref Anna Iwannowna; but, on the advancement of the empref Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obfcure life in the caftle of Schluffelburg, under a ftrong guard, who had particular orders, that, if any perfon or any armed force was employed in attempting to deliver him, they fhould kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his prifon, when the empref Catharine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which depofed her hufband Peter III. had occafioned a ftrong ferment in the minds of the people, Catharine was apprehenfive that fome attempts might be made in favour of Iwan; fhe therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entrufted him to the

care of two officers who were devoted to her intereſt. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at leaſt pretended ſo, to deliver Iwan by force of arms, from the fortreſs of Schluſſelburg; and under this pretence the prince was put to death, after an impriſonment of 23 years. The lieutenant who attempted to deliver him was arreſted, and afterwards beheaded: but, notwithſtanding this, it has been repreſented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he ſuffered for executing the inſtructions he received.

While this event excited the attention of the Ruſſian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland; which was generally the caſe when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland was a capital object with Ruſſia, the empreſs Catharine ſent a body of troops into that country; and by her influence count Poniatowſki was raiſed to the throne. She alſo interpoſed, in order to ſecure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and proteſtant ſubjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majeſty's armies gave to the Roman-catholic Poles, by their reſidence in Poland, increaſed the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies againſt all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The conduct of Ruſſia with regard to Poland gave ſo much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand-ſignor ſent Obreſkoff, the Ruſſian miniſter, to the priſon of the Seven Towers, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Ruſſia and Poland. Hoſtilities ſoon commenced between theſe rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March, 1769, Crim Gueray, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, ſupported by 10,000 ſpahis, having forced the Ruſſian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off ſome thouſand families captive. In April following, the grand vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Conſtantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time, prince Galitzin, who commanded the Ruſſian army on the banks of the Neiſter, thought this a proper time to attempt ſomething deciſive, before the arrival of the great Turkiſh force in that quarter. Having accordingly croſſed the Neiſter with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in ſight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince, having made the neceſſary diſpoſitions, attacked the Turks in their intrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and, notwithſtanding an obſtinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortreſs, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Ruſſian army; but they met with ſuch a warm reception from the artillery, that they ſoon retired in great diſorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to purſue the fugitives, at the head of eight batallions; which they did ſo effectually, that they followed them into the ſuburbs of Choczim, and their purſuit was at length only ſtopped by the paliſadoes of the fortreſs.

On the 13th of July, a very obſtinate battle was fought between a conſiderable Turkiſh army, and the Ruſſians under prince Galitzin, in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Ruſſians immediately inveſted Choczim; but the garriſon, being numerous, made frequent ſallies, and received great reinforcements from the

grand vizir's camp, who was now conſiderably advanced on this ſide of the Danube. Several actions enſued; and prince Galitzin was at length obliged to retreat, and repaſs the Neiſter. It was computed that the ſiege of Choczim, and the actions conſequent to it, coſt the Ruſſians above 20,000 men.

In the management of this war, the grand vizir had acted with a degree of prudence, which it has been thought, would have proved fatal to the deſigns of the Ruſſians, if the ſame conduct had been afterwards purſued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janizaries; ſo that, in conſequence of their clamours, and the weakneſs of the councils that prevailed in the ſeraglio, he at length became a ſacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his ſucceſſor.

During theſe tranſactions, general Romanzow committed great devaſtations upon the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt ſeveral towns and villages, defeated a Turkiſh detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars alſo committed great ravages in Poland, where they almoſt totally deſtroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, beſides doing much miſchief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Ruſſian army was again poſted on the banks of the Neiſter, and effectually defended the paſſage of that river againſt the Turks, whoſe whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the oppoſite ſhore. Having laid three bridges over the Neiſter, the Turkiſh army began to paſs the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked thoſe troops that had croſſed the river in the night, who conſequently could neither chooſe their ground, nor have time to extend or form themſelves properly where they were. Notwithſtanding theſe extreme diſadvantages, the engagement was very ſevere, and continued from ſeven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obſtinacy, but were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repaſs the river with great loſs, and in the utmoſt confuſion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks croſſed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, and deſtroyed the flower of the Turkiſh cavalry. It is ſaid that the loſs of the Turks in this battle amounted to 7000 men killed upon the ſpot, beſides wounded and priſoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the ſame nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to paſs the whole army over. According, on the 17th of September, eight thouſand Janizaries and four thouſand regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, paſſed over with a large train of artillery, and the reſt of the army were in motion to follow, when a ſudden and extraordinary ſwell of the waters of the Neiſter carried away and totally deſtroyed the bridge. The Ruſſians loſt no time in making uſe of this great and unexpected advantage. A moſt deſperate engagement enſued, in which the ſlaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river over which ſome few hundreds of Turks made their eſcape by ſwimming, was for ſeveral miles covered with dead bodies. The Ruſſians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horſe-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and

abandoned the ſtrong fortreſs of Choczim, with all its ſtores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuouſly towards the Danube. They were much exaſperated at the ill conduct of their commander the vizir; and it was computed that the Turks loſt 28,000 of the beſt and braveſt of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deſerted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garriſon of four regiments in the fortreſs of Choczim, and ſoon after reſigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and retured to Peterſburg, covered with laurels.

The Ruſſians continued to carry on the war with ſucceſs; they overran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmdt took poſſeſſion of the capital, Jaſſy, without oppoſition. As the Greek natives of this province had always ſecretly favoured the Ruſſians, they now took this opportunity of their ſucceſs and the abſence of the Turks to declare themſelves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards thoſe of Wallachia, acknowledged the empreſs of Ruſſia their ſovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkiſh army near the river Larga: the Turks are ſaid to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the khan of the Crimea. But on the ſecond of Auguſt, the ſame Ruſſian general obtained a ſtill greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is ſaid that above 7000 Turks were kiled in the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies: a vaſt quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of braſs cannon, and ſome thouſand carriages loaded with proviſions, fell into the hands of the Ruſſians.

But it was not only by land that the Ruſſians carried on the war ſucceſsfully againſt the Turks. The empreſs ſent a conſiderable fleet of men of war, Ruſſian built, into the Mediterranean, to act againſt the Turks on that ſide; and, by means of this fleet, under count Orlop, the Ruſſians ſpread ruin and deſolation through the open iſlands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceleſs coaſts of Greece and Aſia; the particulars of which will appear in the hiſtory of Turkey.

The war between the Ruſſians and the Turks ſtill continued to be carried on by land as well as by ſea, to the advantage of the former; but at length peace was concluded, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to tho Ruſſians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire.

Before the concluſion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Ruſſia, which gave much alarm to the court of Peterſburg. A Coſſac, whoſe name was Pugatſcheff, aſſumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor, Peter the Third. He appeared in the kingdom of Kaſan, and pretended that he made his eſcape, through an extraordinary interpoſition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to aſſaſſinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. There is ſaid to have been a ſtriking reſemblance in his perſon to that of the late emperor; which induced him to engage in this enterprize. As he poſſeſſed abilities and addreſs, his followers ſoon became very numerous; and he at length found himſelf ſo powerful, his followers being armed and provided with artillery, that he ſtood ſeveral engagements with able Ruſſian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great

ravages in the country. But being at laſt totally defeated, and taken priſoner, he was brought to Moſcow in an iron cage, and there beheaded, on the 21ſt of January, 1775.

The peace of 1774 was then indiſpenſably neceſſary to the immediate preſervation of the Turkiſh empire; but within ſo ſmall a ſpace of time as five years a new war was juſt upon the point of breaking out between the two empires, and was only prevented by a new treaty of pacification, which took place on the 21ſt of March, 1779. But the great ſource of diſcord was ſtill left open. The pretended independency of the Crimea afforded ſuch an opening to Ruſſia into the very heart of the Turkiſh empire, and ſuch opportunities of interference, that it was ſcarcely poſſible that any laſting tranquillity could ſubſiſt between the two empires. A claim, made and inſiſted on by Ruſſia, of eſtabliſhing conſuls in the three provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Beſſarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long diſputes, the Turkiſh miniſters, more from a ſenſe of the diſability of the ſtate for war, than from pacific diſpoſitions, found it neceſſary, towards the cloſe of the year 1781, to give up the point in debate with reſpect to the conſuls. This conceſſion, however mortifying, produced but a ſhort-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of ſupporting all the claims of Ruſſia as well as his own, all the parties prepared, with the utmoſt vigour, for the moſt determined hoſtility. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the moſt formidable apparatus of war on the northern and eaſtern borders of Europe. However, in the midſt of all theſe appearances of war, negotiations for a peace continued to be carried on at Conſtantinople; which peace was at laſt ſigned, January 9th, 1784.

By this treaty Ruſſia retains the full ſovereignty of her new acquiſitions, viz. the Crimea, the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban.—As the recovery and reſtoration of every thing Greek is the predominant paſſion of the court of Peterſburg, ſo the Crimea and its dependencies are in future to be known by the name of Taurica; particular places are likewiſe reſtored to their ancient appellations; and the celebrated port and city of Caffa has now reſumed its long-forgotten name of Theodoſia. Since this acceſſion of dominion, new towns, with Greek or Ruſſian names, are riſing faſt in the deſerts, and are peopled moſtly by colonies of Greeks and Armenians.

The year 1787 opened with the extraordinary ſpectacle of the journey of the empreſs of Ruſſia to Cherſon, where it ſeems to have been her original intention to have been crowned with all poſſible magnificence, and under the ſplendid titles of empreſs of the Eaſt, liberator of Greece, and reviver of the ſeries of Roman emperors, who formerly ſwayed the ſceptre over that diviſion of the globe. But this coronation, for reaſons we are unable to aſſign, was laid aſide. The ſplendor of the route of the czarina ſurpaſſes whatever the imagination would ſpontaneouſly ſuggeſt. She was eſcorted by an army. Pioneers preceded her march, whoſe buſineſs it was to render the road as even and pleaſant as it could poſſibly be made. At the end of each day's journey ſhe found a temporary palace erected for her reception, together with all the accommodations and luxuries that Peterſburg could have afforded. In the liſt of her followers were the embaſſadors of London, Verſailles, and Vienna; and her own embaſſador, as well as the envoy of the emperor to the court of Conſtantinople, were appointed to meet her at Cher-

ſon. The king of Poland met her in her journey; and the emperor, not ſatisfied with ſwelling her triumph at Cherſon, appeared in that capital eight days before her, and proceeded to a conſiderable diſtance up the Dnieper, to intercept her progreſs. Her route was through Kiow, where ſhe remained three months, and was received under triumphal arches; and upon her arrival at Cherſon, having thought proper to extend the walls of the city, ſhe inſcribed over one of the gates, "Through this gate lies the road to Byzantium." The czarina returned to Peterſburg by the way of Moſcow.

Scarcely had the empreſs returned to her capital, before ſhe was followed by the Turkiſh declaration of hoſtilities. The emperor of Germany joined her in declaring war againſt the Porte, which, inſtead of being diſheartened at the formidableneſs of this confederacy, applied itſelf with redoubled ardour to prepare for reſiſtance. The operations of the Ruſſian forces were directed againſt Choczim and Oczakow. In the former of theſe undertakings, they acted rather as auxiliaries to the emperor's general, the prince of Saxe Cobourg, who, from the laſt day of June to the 29th of September, 1788, continued a very powerful attack on this city, when it ſurrendered to the arms of the imperial forces. Oczakow, after an obſtinate conteſt, in which the Ruſſians at length became expoſed to all the rigours of a winter campaign, was taken by ſtorm on the 17th of December following.

It was during the progreſs of theſe hoſtilities with the Porte, that Ruſſia found herſelf ſuddenly involved in a new and unexpected war. As a nation, Sweden had the greateſt cauſes of reſentment againſt Ruſſia for paſt injury and loſs, at the ſame time that ſhe had every thing to dread from her preſent overgrown power and boundleſs ambition, which was as little qualified in the wanton diſplay, as it was ungoverned in the actual exertion. Ruſſia has conſtantly found means to maintain a ſtrong and numerous party in Sweden. All theſe cauſes operating together, induced Guſtavus the Third to meditate a project of hoſtilities againſt Ruſſia, which commenced in Finland, a few days after the king's arrival in that province. But the principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland, in the Gulf of Finland. The engagement, which laſted five hours, was fought with conſiderable ſkill and obſtinacy on both ſides. The forces were nearly equal. The Ruſſian fleet, commanded by admiral Greig, conſiſted of ſeventeen ſhips of the line; and the Swediſh, under the command of the duke of Sudermania, the king's brother, conſiſted of fifteen of an inferior weight of metal, but reinforced by five frigates, one of forty-four, and the reſt of forty guns each, which occaſionally ranged themſelves in order of battle. The Ruſſians poſſeſſed, upon the whole, a ſuperiority of 294 pieces of cannon, while that in the weight of metal was perhaps of greater moment. The victory, as is uſually the caſe in actions not apparently and abſolutely deciſive, was claimed by both ſides. But it ſeems, upon the whole, that the Swedes, in the brighteſt period of their glory, had never diſplayed greater gallantry by ſea or land than they did upon this occaſion. Their princely commander merited a very conſiderable ſhare of the glory of this engagement. At laſt, after many other engagements attended with various ſucceſs, on the 14th of Auguſt 1790, a convention for a peace was ſigned between the courts of Ruſſia and Sweden, and ratified in ſix days after.

At the cloſe of the year 1790, the empreſs had the ſatisfaction to ſee her conqueſts no longer bounded by the courſe of the Danube. The capture of Iſmail was the laſt important action. Eight different times

were the Muſcovites repulſed with the ſlaughter of many of their braveſt ſoldiers. At the ninth, general Suwarrow put himſelf at their head, and ſnatching a ſtandard out of an officer's hand, ran directly towards the town, paſſed the trenches, and climbing up the wall, planted it himſelf upon the ramparts. "There," cried he, "my fellow-"ſoldiers behold there your ſtandard in the power of the enemy, unleſs "you will preſerve it; but I know you are brave, and will not ſuffer it "to remain in their hands." This ſpeech had the deſired effect. It was taken by ſtorm on the 22d of December, 1790; and it is ſaid that the ſiege and capture did not coſt the Ruſſians leſs than 10,000 men. The moſt ſhocking part of the tranſaction is, that the garriſon (whoſe bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the higheſt honours) were maſſacred in cold blood by the mercileſs Ruſſians, to the amount of upwards of 30,000 men, by their own account; and the place was given up to the unreſtrained fury of the brutal ſoldiery. The moſt horrid outrages were perpetrated on the defenceleſs inhabitants; and the conduct of the conquerors was more like that of a horde of canibals than of a civiliſed people; and too ſtrongly evinces, that, whatever ſteps may have been taken by the late or other ſovereigns of this empire to produce a forced civiliſation, both the monarchs and the people of Ruſſia are ſtill barbarians.

England and Pruſſia, after a long and expenſive armed negotiation, at length aſſented to the demand of the empreſs, which was ſtrengthened by the interference of Spain and Denmark, that Oczakow, and the territory between the rivers Bog and Nieſter, ſhall in full ſovereignty belong to Ruſſia; that the river Nieſter ſhall for the future determine the frontiers of Ruſſia and the Porte; that the two powers may erect on the ſhores of that river what fortreſſes they think proper: and Ruſſia engages to grant a free navigation on the river Nieſter. This was concluded on the 11th of Auguſt, 1791. Thus has the Porte entered into a war, for the purpoſe of regaining the Crimea, and after reducing the Ottoman empire to extreme weakneſs, and internal ſymptoms of ruin, irretrievable by a government in a regular progreſs of deterioration, loſt an important territory, and left the exiſtence of the empire at the mercy of another Ruſſian war. By ſome advantages offered to Pruſſia and Auſtria, and a few intrigues, Ruſſia may hereafter change the fluctuating ſtream of European politics, and by one powerful campaign overturn the Turkiſh monarchy.

The final treaty with the Turks was concluded at Jaſſy, the 9th of January, 1792. Catharine then applied herſelf to the improvement of Oczakow, and rendered it a place of great ſtrength, importance, and commerce. At the ſame time ſhe was not inattentive to European politics. When the coalition of ſovereign powers was formed againſt France, Guſtavus III. the late king of Sweden, was to have conducted that expedition which was afterwards made againſt France by the king of Pruſſia and the Prince of Brunſwick. Catharine, on this occaſion, promiſed to aſſiſt him and the alliance with twelve thouſand Ruſſian troops, and an annual ſubſidy of three hundred thouſand rubles. She aſſured the pope that ſhe would ſupport him in the reſumption of Avignon, and publiſhed a ſtrong manifeſto againſt the French revolution and the progreſs of the new principles of liberty; but the only active part ſhe took againſt that revolution was ſending twelve ſhips of the line and eight frigates to join the Engliſh fleet, which were paid for by a ſubſidy, victualled and repaired in the Britiſh ports, and then re-

turned home without rendering any further ſervice. But her attention was principally directed to Poland, and the efforts which that people made in the cauſe of liberty. Whilſt ſhe amuſed the world with manifeſtoes againſt France, ſhe beheld, with pleaſure, the greateſt powers of Europe waſting their ſtrength and treaſure; and, undiſturbed by any foreign interference, made a ſecond partition of Poland, the circumſtances of which the reader will find briefly narrated in our account of that unfortunate country.

By her intrigues, ſhe, in like manner, annexed to the crown of Ruſſia the fertile and populous country of Courland. She invited the duke of Courland to her court under the pretext that ſhe wiſhed to confer with him on ſome affairs of importance; and during his abſence the ſtates of Courland aſſembled, and the nobles propoſed to renounce the ſovereignty of Poland, and annex the country to the empire of Ruſſia. The principal members of the great council oppoſed this change; but the Ruſſian general Pahlen appeared in the aſſembly, and his preſence ſilenced all objections. The next day (March 18, 1795) an act was drawn up, by which Courland, Semigallia, and the circle of Pilten, were ſurrendered to the empreſs of Ruſſia. The act was ſent to Peterſburg, and the ſubmiſſion of the ſtates accepted by the empreſs. The duke of Courland was in no condition to refuſe his acquieſcence: he received very conſiderable preſents from the empreſs, in compenſation, and retired to live on ſome extenſive eſtates he had purchaſed in Pruſſia.

But the acquiſition, by intrigue and artifice, of countries incapable of reſiſtance, was not ſufficient to ſatisfy the ambition of Catharine. Inceſſantly anxious to extend her dominions, ſhe turned her arms againſt Perſia, under the pretext of defending Lolf Ali Khan, a deſcendent of the race of the Sophis; but in reality to ſeiſe on the Perſian provinces which border on the Caſpian ſea. Her general Valerian Zouboff penetrated, at the head of a numerous army, into the province of Dagheſtan, and laid ſiege to Derbent. Having carried a high tower which defended the place, he put all the garriſon to the ſword, and prepared to ſtorm the city. The Perſians, terrified at the barbarous fury of the Ruſſians, demanded quarter; and the keys of the city were delivered up to Zouboff by the commandant, a venerable old man, a hundred and twenty years of age, who had before ſurrendered Derbent to Peter I. at the beginning of the preſent century. Aga Mahmed was advancing to the relief of Derbent, when he learned that the place was already in the power of the Ruſſians. Zouboff drew out his army, and gave him battle; but victory declared in favour of the Perſians, who forced the Ruſſians to retire into Derbent; in conſequence of which defeat, a ſtrong body of Ruſſian troops were ordered to reinforce the army of Zouboff.

Theſe martial preparations, and plans of ambition, were, however, interrupted by her death. On the morning of the 9th of November, 1796, ſhe appeared very cheerful, and took her coffee as uſual. Soon after ſhe retired into the cloſet, where continuing unuſually long, her attendants became alarmed, and at length opened the door, when they found her on the floor in a ſtate of inſenſibility, with her feet againſt the door. Doctor Rogerſon, her firſt phyſician, was immediately called, who bled her twice. At firſt ſhe appeared rather to revive, but was unable to utter a word, and expired at ten o'clock at night.

Catharine II. in her youth had been handſome, and preſerved in the cloſe of life a graceful and majeſtic air. She was of a middle ſtature, well proportioned, and, as ſhe carried her head very erect, appeared taller than ſhe really was. Her forehead was open, her noſe aquiline, her mouth well made, and her chin ſomewhat long, though not ſo as to have a diſagreeable effect. Her countenance did not want for expreſſion; but ſhe was too well practiſed in the courtly habits of diſſimulation to ſuffer it to expreſs what ſhe wiſhed to conceal.

With reſpect to her political character, ſhe was undoubtedly a great ſovereign. From the commencement of her reign ſhe laboured, and with the greateſt ſucceſs, to increaſe the power and political conſequence of her country. She encouraged learning and the arts, and made every exertion to extend, encourage, and enlarge the commerce of her ſubjects. She effected many and important regulations in the interior police, and particularly in the courts of juſtice. She aboliſhed the torture, and adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of priſons. The new code of laws, for which ſhe gave inſtructions, will contribute ſtill more to mitigate the rigour of deſpotiſm. In the execution, indeed, of her plans for the aggrandiſement of her empire, ſhe appears to have acknowledged no right but power, no law but intereſt. Of her private life, her panegyriſts, if prudent, will ſpeak but little. They will dwell lightly on the means by which ſhe mounted the throne. The only palliation of that conduct, which the moſt friendly ingenuity can ſuggeſt, will be derived from the frequent and bloody uſurpations which, ſince the death of Peter the Great, had almoſt become the habit of the Ruſſian court. But there are ſome acts, at the recital of which we ſhould ſhudder, even if the ſcene were laid in Morocco. The myſterious fate of prince Iwan, in 1763, cannot be obliterated from hiſtory; the blood ſpilt in the long-conceived ſcheme of expelling the Turks from Europe, and re-eſtabliſhing the eaſtern empire in the perſon of a ſecond Conſtantine, will not be expiated, in the eſtimation of humanity, by the gigantic magnificence of the project. Above all, the fate of Poland, the diſſenſions and civil wars induſtriouſly fomented in that unhappy kingdom, for a period of thirty years the horrible maſſacres which attended its final ſubjugation, and the impious mockery of returning ſolemn thanks to heaven for the ſucceſs of ſuch atrocious crimes, will be a foul and indelible ſtain on the memory of Catharine.

The character of her ſucceſſor Paul I. as far as it has been diſplayed in the firſt year of his reign, appears to be milder and more pacific than that of his mother. Immediately on his acceſſion to the throne, he ordered hoſtilities to ceaſe between Ruſſia and Perſia; and a peace was ſoon after concluded between the two countries. He ſet at liberty the unfortunate Koſciuſko, the general of the Poliſh patriots, with liberty either to reſide in his dominions or retire to America, which latter country the general choſe for his aſylum, but whence he has ſince returned to Europe, and now reſides in France. He behaved with an honourable liberality towards the depoſed king of Poland; and reſtored to their eſtates a great number of Poliſh emigrants and fugitives.

He has ſince, however, taken a very active part in the war againſt France, and aided the allies with very powerful armies, which have hitherto had great ſucceſs. Whether this interference originates in a ſincere wiſh to protect the rights of the neighbouring princes, and reſtore tranquillity to Europe, by reſtraining the exorbitant ambition of France;

or whether it originates in ſecret views of ſelf-intereſt and aggrandiſement, time alone muſt diſcover.

Catharine II. the empreſs of all the Ruſſias, was born May 2, 1729, and aſcended the throne July 9th, 1762, upon the depoſition and death of her huſband. She was married to that prince while he was duke of Holſtein Gottorp, Sept. 1, 1745; and died Nov. 9, 1796.

Paul I the preſent emperor of Ruſſia, was born Oct. 1, 1754. He has been twice married; and by his preſent conſort, who was princeſs of Wirtemberg, has iſſue:

1. Alexander, born Dec. 23, 1777, married to the princeſs Louiſa, of Baden, May 21, 1793.
2. Conſtantine, born May 8, 1779, married to the princeſs of Saxe Cobourg, February 14, 1796.
3. Alexander Powlowna, born in Aug. 1783.
4. Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784.
5. A princeſs, born in March, 1786.
6. Another princeſs, born in May, 1788.
7. Another princeſs, born in 1792.

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## SCOTLAND AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ACCORDING to the general plan of this work, we ſhall treat of the iſlands belonging to Scotland, before we proceed to the deſcription of that ancient kingdom; and to avoid prolixity, comprehend under one head thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides*, or Weſtern Iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſlands of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, or Orkney-iſlands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude, and form part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades lie north of Duncſby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempeſtuous ſtrait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles, are very numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of theſe iſlands, the air being keen, piercing, and ſalubrious; ſo that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney iſlands they can ſee to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the ſummer months, they have frequent communications, both for buſineſs and curioſity, with each other, and with the continent; the reſt of the year, however, theſe iſlands are almoſt inacceſſible, through fogs, darkneſs, and ſtorms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fiſherman was impriſoned in May, for publiſhing the account of the prince and princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the throne of England, the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largeſt of the Shetland iſlands, which are forty-ſix in number (though many of them are uninhabited),

* Anciently called the *Hebudes*. The origin of the modern name Hebrides is not known, except it be a corruption of *Hebudes*.

## References to the Shires.

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| 1 Edinburgh. | 18 Argyle. |
| 2 Haddington. | 19 Perth. |
| 3 Merse. anciently Berwick. | 20 Kinkardin or Mearn. |
| 4 Roxborough. | 21 Aberdeen. |
| 5 Selkirk. | 22 Inverness. |
| 6 Peebles. | 23 Nairne. |
| 7 Lanerk. | 24 Cromartie. |
| 8 Dumfries. | 25 Fife. |
| 9 Wigtoun. | 26 Angus or Forfar. |
| 10 Kircudbright. | 27 Bamff. |
| 11 Air. | 28 Sutherland. |
| 12 Dumbarton. | 29 Clackmannan. |
| 13 Bute. | 30 Kinross. |
| 14 Caithness. | 31 Ross. |
| 15 Renfrew. | 32 Murray, or Elgin. |
| 16 Stirling. | 33 Orkney. |
| 17 Linlithgow. | |

NORTHERN OCEAN

Orkney Isles

Shetland Isles

Part of Inverness Shire

Western OCEAN

ATLANTIC OCEAN

BRITISH OCEAN

SCOTLAND
from the beft
AUTHORITIES.

Common Scotch Miles
10 20 30 40
British Statute Miles.
10 20 30 40 50 60 70

Longitude West 8 from London

is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen; and it is the ſeat of a preſbytery. On this iſland the Dutch begin to fiſh for herrings at midſummer, and their fiſhing-ſeaſon laſts ſix months.

The largeſt of the Orkney iſlands, which are about thirty in number (though ſeveral of them are unpeopled), is called Pomona. Its length is 33 miles, and its breadth, in ſome places, nine. It contains nine pariſh churches, and four excellent harbours.

The Iſle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and in ſome places almoſt as broad. It contains two pariſhes, and a caſtle called Duart, which is the chief place in the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are Lewis, or Harries (for they both form but one iſland), which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth; its chief town is Stornway. Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs, is 40 miles long, and, in ſome places, 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland, as i now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran form the ſhire of Bute. The iſles of Ila and Jura are part of Argyleſhire, and contain together about 370 ſquare miles; but they have no towns worthy notice. North Uiſt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fiſhing. Iona, once the ſeat and ſanctuary of weſtern learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway, is ſtill famous for its reliques of ſanctimonious antiquity, as ſhall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to deſcribe the iſland of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reaſon, apparently, but becauſe it is the remoteſt of all the north-weſt iſlands, and very difficult of acceſs; for it does not contain above thirty-five families.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION.

The inhabitants of Shetland and Orkney were formerly ſubject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William the Conqueror. In the year 1263 they were in poſſeſſion of Magnus of Norway, who ſold them to Alexander king of Scots, by whom they were given as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became ſubject to, the crown of Denmark. Chriſtian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret: and all future pretenſions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The iſles of Shetland and Orkney form a ſtewartry, or ſhire, which ſends a member to parliament. At preſent the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; except that their manners are more ſimple, and their minds leſs cultivated. Men of fortune there have improved their eſtates wonderfully of late years, and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling and other houſes in a modern taſte, and are remarkable for the fineneſs of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheeſe, fiſh, ſea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty), particularly geeſe; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, ſo as to give it a vinous quality. In ſome of the northern iſlands, the Norwegian, which is

called the Norſe language, is ſtill ſpoken. Their vaſt intercourſe with the Dutch, during the fiſhing ſeaſon, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney iſlands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians in ſeiſing the neſts of ſea-fowls, which build in the moſt frightful precipices and rocks. Their temperance preſerves them from many diſeaſes. They cure the ſcurvy and the jaundice, to which they are ſubject, with the powder of ſnail-ſhells and ſcurvy-graſs, of which they have plenty. Their religion is the Proteſtant, and according to the diſcipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil inſtitutions are much the ſame with thoſe of the country to which they belong.

Nothing can be affirmed with certainty as to the population of theſe three diviſions of iſlands. We have the moſt undoubted evidences of hiſtory, that, about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now: for the Hebrides themſelves were known often to ſend 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At preſent their numbers are ſaid not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed and live like the Scotch Highlanders, who ſhall hereafter be deſcribed. They are ſimilar in perſons, conſtitutions, cuſtoms, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more poliſhed manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the deſcendents of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be diſcernible only in the Hebrides.

Thoſe iſlands alone retain the ancient uſages of the Celts, as deſcribed by the oldeſt and beſt authors; but with a ſtrong tincture of the feudal conſtitution. Their ſhanachies or ſtory-tellers ſupply the place of the ancient bards, ſo famous in hiſtory; and are the hiſtorians, or rather genealogiſts, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewiſe attended, when he appears abroad, with his muſician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dreſſed in the manner of the Engliſh minſtrels of former times, but as it is ſaid, much more ſumptuouſly *. Notwithſtanding the contempt into which that muſic is fallen, it is almoſt incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among theſe iſlanders ſo late as the beginning of the preſent century. They had regular colleges and profeſſors, and the ſtudents took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, ſome of which were too barbarous to be retained or even mentioned, are now aboliſhed. The inhabitants, however, ſtill preſerve the moſt profound reſpect and affection for their ſeveral chieftains, notwithſtanding all the pains that have been taken by the Britiſh legiſlature to break thoſe connexions, which experience has ſhown to be ſo dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders; though they certainly fare better; for they have oatmeal, plenty of fiſh and fowl, cheeſe, butter, milk and whey; and alſo mutton, beef, goat, kid, and veniſon. They indulge themſelves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn; and the agility of both ſexes in the exerciſes of the field, and in dancing to their favourite muſic, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this ſubject, ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides, under the name of *ſecond ſight*. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of the inſtances of this kind that have been related by reputable authors, as to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts

* See Percy's Reliques of Ancient Engliſh Poetry, in 3 vols.

of the ſecond ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compaſs of 24 or 48 hours. We do not, however, from the beſt information, obſerve that any two of thoſe adepts agree as to the manner and form of thoſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, which they miſtake for fatidical or prophetic manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to propheſy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that, amidſt many thouſand predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe being well atteſted, give a ſanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides being the moſt weſterly iſlands where the Celts ſettled, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt purity. This opinion, though very plauſible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as cuſtoms, are there found; but the vaſt intercourſe which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whoſe language is mixed with Sclavonian and Teutonic, which laſt has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; ſo that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which was ſpoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the oppoſite coaſts of Scotland, the undoubted deſcendents of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides is chiefly preſbyterian, as eſtabliſhed in the church of Scotland: but popery and ignorance ſtill prevail among ſome of the iſlanders, whilſt ſuperſtitious practices and cuſtoms ſeem to be almoſt grafted in their nature.

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] Though it is not in the power of natural philoſophy to aſſign the cauſe, yet it is certain that the ſoil, both of the northern and weſtern iſlands belonging to Scotland, has ſuffered an amazing alteration. Many of theſe iſlands have evidently been the habitations of the Druids, whoſe temples are ſtill viſible in moſt of them; and thoſe temples were ſurrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The ſtumps of former trees however are diſcernible, as are many veſtiges of grandeur, even ſince the admiſſion of the Chriſtian religion; which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily ſhows, that if the ſoil of the northern or weſtern iſlands till of late was barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for ſuch ſpots of them as are now cultivated produce corn, vegetables, and garden-ſtuff, more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and ſilver mines, marle, ſlate, free-ſtone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon theſe iſlands. They are not deſtitute of fine freſh water, nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that the preſent face of the ſoil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe are all in their infancy in thoſe iſlands. The reader will eaſily ſuppoſe that their ſtaple commodities conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which are the beſt in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; and their ſheep

afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and linen manufactures begin to make a progreſs in theſe iſlands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſtry, with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render theſe iſlands at once ornamental and beneficial to the mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Little can be ſaid on this head that is peculiar to theſe iſlands. In the countries already deſcribed, mention has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcovered here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are incredibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious and wealthy. The coaſts of thoſe iſlands, till within theſe twenty years, ſeemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for ſtrangers. The latter furniſh the former with wines, ſtrong liquors, ſpice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thouſand buſſes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fiſhery, beſides thoſe fitted out by the Hamburgers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] Theſe iſlands exhibit many pregnant proofs, in their churches, the veſtiges of old forts, and other buildings, both ſacred and civil, of what has been already obſerved, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The uſe and conſtruction of ſome of thoſe works are not eaſily accounted for at preſent. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the weſtern iſlands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone called a dwarf ſtone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet high for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, large enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endleſs to recount the various veſtiges of the Druidical temples remaining in theſe iſlands, ſome of which have required prodigious labour, and are ſtupendous erections, of the ſame nature as the famous Stonehenge near Saliſbury; others ſeem to be memorials of particular perſons or actions, conſiſting of one large ſtone ſtanding upright; ſome of them have been ſculptured, and others have ſerved as ſepulchres, and are compoſed of ſtones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in theſe iſlands; and the monuments of Daniſh and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to deſcribe. The gigantic bones, found in many burial places here, give room to believe that the former inhabitants were of larger ſize than the preſent. It is likewiſe probable, from ſome ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine ſilver fibulæ or claſps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with theſe parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a pariſh church. Its roof is ſupported by 14 pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates

of the church are chequered with red and white poliſhed ſtone, emboſſed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are ſtill more diſtinguiſhed than the Orkney or Shetland iſles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head were we even to mention every remarkable monument found in them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purpoſes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated Iſle of Iona, called St. Columb-Kill. Not to enter into the hiſtory or origin of the religious erections upon this iſland, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it ſeems to have ſerved as a ſanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were deſolated by barbariſm. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the ſanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of ſome Scotch, Iriſh, and Norwegian kings, with ſome Gaëlic inſcriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninſcribed. The ſteeple is large, the cupola is 21 feet ſquare, the doors and windows are curiouſly carved, and the altar is of the fineſt marble. Innumerable are the inſcriptions of ancient cuſtoms and ceremonies, that are diſcernible upon this iſland, and which give countenance to the well-known obſervation, that, when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in theſe iſlands.

The iſlands belonging to Scotland contain likewiſe ſome natural curioſities peculiar to themſelves: the phaſeoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as ſuppoſed, from the Weſt Indies, by the weſterly winds, which often force aſhore many curious ſhells and marine productions, highly eſteemed by naturaliſts. In the pariſh of Harn, a large piece of ſtag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants who were digging for marle; and certain bituminous effluvia produce ſurpriſing phænomena, which the natives believe to be ſupernatural.

But ſome of the moſt aſtoniſhing appearances in nature have remained undeſcribed, and, till lately, unobſerved even by the natives of theſe iſlands;—a diſcovery reſerved for the inquiſitive genius of Mr. Banks, now Sir Joſeph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, ſays: "We were no ſooner arrived, than we were ſtruck with a ſcene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the moſt ſanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the iſland (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themſelves: upon a firm baſis of ſolid unformed rock, above theſe, the ſtratum, which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or valleys; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; ſome of theſe, above ſixty feet in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt in the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by man? mere models or playthings; imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to thoſe of nature. Where is now the boaſt of the architect? Regularity, the only part in which he fancied himſelf to exceed his miſtreſs, Nature, is here found in her poſſeſſion: and here it has been for ages undeſcribed. Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet

with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is paſt all deſcription: here they are bare to their very baſis, and the ſtratum below them is alſo viſible." Mr. Banks particulariſes ſundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring iſland, which is wholly compoſed of pillars without any ſtratum. In ſome parts of Staffa, inſtead of being placed upright, the pillars were obſerved to lie on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle; but the moſt ſtriking object in this field of ſcenery is Fingal's Cave, which Mr. Banks deſcribes in the following manner:—"With our minds full of ſuch reflections, we proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another *Giant's Cauſeway*, every ſtone being regularly formed into a certain number of ſides and angles; till, in a ſhort time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers*. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of thoſe which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which a yellow ſtalagmitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; ſo that the fartheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without; and the air within being agitated with the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp of vapours, with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who alſo made a voyage to theſe iſlands in the ſame year, had a glance of Staffa, in his paſſage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by ſtormy weather from approaching it. "On the weſt," ſays he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treaſhuniſh iſles. Neareſt lies Staffa, a new Giants' Cauſeway, riſing amidſt the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; gloſſy and reſplendent, from the beams of the eaſtern ſun." And in the iſle of Sky, a conſiderable way northward, he reſumes the ſubject: "We had in view, a fine ſeries of genuine baſaltic columns, reſembling the Giants' Cauſeway; the pillars were above twenty feet high, conſiſting of four, five, and ſix angles, but moſtly of five. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe, on the ſlope of a hill, is a tract of ſome roods entirely formed of the tops of ſeveral ſeries of columns, even and cloſe ſet, forming a reticulated ſurface of amazing beauty and curioſity. This is the moſt northern baſaltes I am acquainted with; the laſt of four in the Britiſh dominions, all running from ſouth to north, nearly in a meridian; the Giants' Cauſeway appears firſt; Staffa, &c. ſucceeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther; and finally, thoſe columns of Sky; the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vaſt link of this chain."

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY.] See Scotland.

* The dimenſions of the cave are thus given by Mr. Banks:

| | |
|---|---|
| Length of the cave from the arch without | 371 Feet. |
| From the pitch of the arch | 250 |
| Breadth of ditto at the mouth | 53 |
| At the further end | 90 |
| Height of the arch at the mouth | 117 |
| At the end | 70 |
| Height of an outſide pillar | 39 |
| Of one at the north-weſt corner | 54 |
| Depth of water at the mouth | 18 |
| At the bottom | 9 |

# SCOTLAND.

## EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| | MILES. | | DEGREES. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length ..... | 300 | between | 54 and 59 North latitude. |
| Breadth ..... | 190 | | 1 and 6 Weſt longitude. |

NAME.] THE Celtæ or Gauls are ſuppoſed to have been the original inhabitants of this kingdom. The Scots, a Scythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and the word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian, being originally, from that immenſe country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Eſcotia; by the French, Ecoſſe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and Engliſh.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 ſquare miles, is bounded on the ſouth by England; and on the north, eaſt, and weſt by the Deucaledonian, German, and Iriſh Seas, or more properly, the Atlantic Ocean.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the counties ſouth of the Frith of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and thoſe to the north of the ſame river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national diviſion; but ſome modern writers, with leſs geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or ſhires, are allotted to the ſouthern diviſion, and fifteen to the northern: and thoſe counties are ſubdivided into ſheriffdoms, ſtewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

| Shires. | Sheriffdoms and other Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| 1 Edinburgh (297*) | Mid Lothian ..... | Edinburgh, W. long. 3. N. lat. 56. Muſſelburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith. |
| 2 Haddington (137) | Eaſt Lothian ..... | Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick. |
| 3 Merſe, anciently Berwick† (145) | The Merches, and Lauderdale ..... | Dunſe and Lauder. |
| 4 Roxborough (149) | Tiviotdale, Lidiſdale, Eſkdale, & Eweſdale | Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs. |

* The numbers ſhow the proportion of militia, as propoſed to be raiſed in each ſhire by the late act of parliament.

† Berwick, on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itſelf, in a political ſenſe diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

| Shires. | Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| 5 Selkirk .... (25) | Ettrick Foreſt ..... | Selkirk. |
| 6 Peebles ..... | Tweedale ..... | Peebles. |
| 7 Lanerk ....(536) | Clydeſdale ..... | Glaſgow, W. lon. 4. 5. N. lat. 55. 52. Hamilton, Lanerk, and Rutherglen. |
| 8 Dumfries.. (246) | Nithſdale, Anandale . | Dumfries, Annan. |
| 9 Wigtown.. (89) | Galloway, Weſt part . | Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn. |
| 10 Kircudbright (23) | Galloway, Eaſt part . . | Kircudbright. |
| 11 Air ..... (342) | Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham .... | Air, Kilmarnock, Irvine, Maybole, Stewarton, & Saltcots. |
| 12 Dumbarton (80) | Lenox ..... | Dumbarton. |
| 13 Bute (30) and 14 Caithneſs .. (67) | Bute, Arran, and Caithneſs ..... | Rothſay. Wick, N. lat. 58. 40. and Thurſo. |
| 15 Renfrew .. (186) | Renfrew ..... | Renfrew, Paiſley, Greenock, and Port Glaſgow. |
| 16 Stirling.... (194) | Stirling ..... | Stirling and Falkirk. |
| 17 Linlithgow . (70) | Weſt Lothian ..... | Linlithgow, Burroughſtonneſs, & Queen's-ferry. |
| 18 Argyle .... (257) | Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the Weſtern Iſles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Uiſt, Teri, Col, and Liſmore ..... | Inverary, Dunſtaffnage, Killonmer, & Cambeltown. |
| 19 Perth..... (500) | Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormont, Glenſhield, and Raynock | Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld. |
| 20 Kincardin.. (100) | Merns..... (100) | Bervie, Stonehive, and Kincardin. |
| 21 Aberdeen . (463) | Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie .. | Old Aberdeen, W. lon. 1. 40. N. lat. 57. 22. New Aberdeen, Fraſerſburgh, Peterhead Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum. |
| 22 Inverneſs . (188) | Aird, Strathglaſs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, & Glenmoriſon ..... | Inverneſs, Inverlochy, Fort Auguſtus, Boileau. |
| 23 Nairne (22) and 24 Cromartie .. (21) | Weſtern part of Murray and Cromartie | Nairne, Cromartie. |

| Shires. | Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| 25 Fife .... (335) | Fife ..... | St. Andrew's, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Iſland, Dumfermline, Dyſart, Anſtruther & Aberdour. |
| 26 Forfar .... (351) | Forfar, Angus ..... | Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin. |
| 27 Bamff .... (24) | Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, & part of Buchan .... | Bamff and Cullen. |
| 28 Sutherland .. (52) | Strathnaver and Sutherland ..... | Strathey and Dornoch. |
| 29 Clacmannan (46) and 30 Kinroſs .... (26) | Fife part ..... | Culroſs Clacmannan. Alloa, and Kinroſs. |
| 31 Roſs ..... (155) | Eaſter and Weſter Roſs, Iſles of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, & Ferrindonald .. .... | Taine, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſemarkie, and New Kelſo. |
| 32 Elgin ..... (90) | Murray and Strathſpey | Elgin and Forres. |
| 33 Orkney ..... | Iſles of Orkney and Shetland ..... | Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 59. 45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. lat. 61. |

In all thirty-three ſhires, which chooſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great-Britain; Bute and Caithneſs chooſing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmannan and Kinroſs.

The royal boroughs which chooſe repreſentatives are,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Edinburgh ..... | 1 | Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Stirling ..... | 1 |
| Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tayne .... | 1 | Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton ..... | 1 |
| Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne, and Forres ..... | 1 | Haddington, Dunbar, N. Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh. | 1 |
| Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and Kintore ..... | 1 | Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk ..... | 1 |
| Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aberbrothe, and Brechin - | 1 | Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan, Lochmaban, & Kircudbright | 1 |
| Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrew's ..... | 1 | Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn | 1 |
| Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem | 1 | Air, Irvine, Rothſay, Cambeltown, and Inverary ..... | 1 |
| Dyſart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Iſland ..... | 1 | | |

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, daylight, at midſummer, laſts eighteen hours and five minutes; and the day and night in winter are in the ſame proportion. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes, but ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affords thoſe warm breezes, that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent thoſe epidemic diſtempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, however, which are generally covered with ſnow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The ſoil in general is not ſo fertile as that of England; and in many places leſs fitted for agriculture than for paſture. At the ſame time, there are particular plains and valleys of the moſt luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, inceſſantly waſhed down from the mountains, and depoſited in theſe valleys, afford them a vegetative nouriſhment; which is capable of carrying the ſtrongeſt plants to perfection; though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come ſo ſoon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of ſoils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diverſified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vaſt inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the huſbandman, are particularly pleaſing to a traveller, and afford thoſe delightful ſituations for country houſes, of which many of the Scottiſh nobility and gentry have ſo judiciouſly availed themſelves. It is their ſituation, more than any expenſive magnificence, that occaſions the ſeats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopetoun, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where elſe, depends on the qualities of the ſoil through which it paſſes. Water paſſing through a heavy ſoil is turbid and noxious; but, filtrating through ſand or gravel, is clear, light, and ſalutary to the ſtomach. This laſt is in general the caſe in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more ſouthern climates, in proportion as the land is worſe.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian-hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian, and joins thoſe of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, riſes near the eaſtern coaſt, and runs weſtward through the Merſe. Beſides thoſe continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot Hills on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, are ſometimes called by the Celtic name, *Lawrs*. Many of them are ſtupendouſly high, and of beautiful forms, but too numerous to be particulariſed here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largeſt river in Scotland is the Forth, which riſes in Monteith near Callendar, and paſſing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, diſcharges itſelf near Edinburgh into that arm of the German Sea, to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which iſſues out of Loch-Tay, in Broadalbin, and, running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes the town of Perth, and falls into the ſea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the moſt rapid river in Scotland, iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and, running from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, falls into the ſea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from weſt to eaſt, and diſembogue them-

ſelves at Aberdeen. The Tweed riſes on the borders of Lanerkſhire, and, after many beautiful ſerpentine turnings, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Berwick, where it ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eaſtern ſide. The Clyde is a large river on the weſt of Scotland, has its riſe in Annandale, runs north weſt through the valley of that name, and, after paſſing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenoch, falls into the Frith of Clyde, oppoſite to the Iſle of Bute. Beſides thoſe capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior ſize, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſh, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of thoſe rivers have the name of *Eſk*, which is the old Celtic word for water. The greateſt improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in that part of Great Britain was undertaken, at a very conſiderable expenſe, by a ſociety of public-ſpirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication has been opened between the eaſt and weſt ſeas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly deſcribed. Thoſe called Loch-Tay, Loch-Lomond, Loch-Neſs, Loch-Au, and one or two more, preſent us with ſuch pictureſque ſcenes as are ſcarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of theſe lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of freſh-water fiſh. The Scotch ſometimes give the name of a Loch to an arm of the ſea; for example, Loch-Fyn, which is 60 miles long, and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of ſwans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as ſome think, to the plant *oloriza*, which grows in its waters, with a ſtraight ſtalk, and a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. Near Loch-Neſs is a hill almoſt two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold freſh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the Lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine deſcendents of the Celts, were probably enabled to preſerve themſelves independent on, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Beſides theſe rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coaſts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, navigable Bays or arms of the ſea, as the Bay of Glenluce and Wigtown Bay; ſometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which ſeparates Scotland from England on the weſt; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and thoſe of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is moſt uninviting, preſents us with the moſt incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepeſt moſſes, or moraſſes, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine, have a preſerving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been diſcovered in thoſe moſſes. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian foreſt, the remains of which are now thought to be Ettrick wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but ſuch an animal is not now to be ſeen in Scotland. Several woods, however, ſtill remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the uſe of furnaces and foundries; but lying at a great diſtance from water-carriage, though the works ſucceeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland,

and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where ſome woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at preſent boaſt of its gold mines, yet it is certain that it contains ſuch, or at leaſt that Scotland formerly afforded a conſiderable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father, contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor: and it is an undoubted fact, that, when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered diſhes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were preſented to the gueſts by way of deſſert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, in the minority of his grandſon, drove thoſe foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which ſince that time have never been reſumed. Some ſmall pieces of gold have been found in thoſe parts, waſhed down by the floods. It likewiſe appears by the public records, that thoſe beautiful coins, ſtruck by James V. called bonnet pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the ſame metal.

Several landlords in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead-mines, which are ſaid to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of ſilver; but we know of no ſilver mines that are worked at preſent. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vaſt emolument of the public. Lime-ſtone is here in great plenty, as is free-ſtone; ſo that the houſes of the better ſort are conſtructed of the moſt beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places of Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood: and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel: however, the taſte for plantations of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; alum-mines have been found in Bamffſhire; cryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potter's clay, and fuller's earth. The ſtones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint heads of arrows uſed by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and ſtones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the profits, in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] It is certain that the ſoil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even ſaid that ſome tracts of the Low-countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are ſo far leſs exhauſted and worn out than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſlands; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are

daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks, and marſhes, which, being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted.

But the fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly underſtood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverſe, however, may be obſerved of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In ſuch places, the huſbandmen barely exiſt upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. the cattle are lean and ſmall, the houſes mean beyond expreſſion, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed, from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows and planting as adorn the country of England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, as occupying more room than what they call ſtone incloſures, which, except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, of looſe ſtones huddled up without lime or mortar, which yield a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſture. In the ſouthern counties the fineſt garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are ſaid to fall little, if at all, ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; though it muſt be owned that many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath. The ſea-coaſt produces the alga-marina, dulſe or duliſh, a moſt wholeſome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants, which are eaten for nouriſhment or pleaſure.

The fiſhes on the coaſt of Scotland are much the ſame with thoſe of the iſlands and countries already deſcribed; but the Scots have improved in their fiſheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture; for ſocieties have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bid fair to emulate the Dutch themſelves in curing as well as catching their fiſh. In former times, the Scots ſeldom ventured to fiſh above a league's diſtance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and ſucceſsful as any of their neighbours. Their ſalmons, which they can ſend more early, when prepared, to the Levant and ſouthern markets, than the Engliſh and Iriſh can, are of great ſervice to the nation, as the returns are generally made in ſpecie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domeſtic animals that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and roe-buck are found in the Highlands; but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouſe and heath-cock, which is a moſt delicious bird, as likewiſe the capperkaily, and the ptarmigan, which is

of the pheaſant kind; but theſe birds are ſcarce even in the Highlands, and, when diſcovered, are very ſhy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and ſheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the ſouth, are almoſt incredible, and formerly brought large ſums into the country; the black cattle eſpecially, which, when fattened on the ſou hern paſtures, have been reckoned ſuperior to Engliſh beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vaſt increaſe of manufactures, whoſe demand for butcher's meat muſt leſſen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a ſufficient ſtock, by proper methods, may be raiſed to ſupply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horſes, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent: but the truth is, notwithſtanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and ſoil of Scotland were unfavourable to that noble animal; for they diminiſhed both in ſize and ſpirit; ſo that, about the time of the union, few horſes, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the Engliſh and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for providing them with proper food and management; but with what ſucceſs time alone can diſcover.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls; this calculation reſts merely upon vague conjectures, as we know of no attempt that has been made to ſupport even its probability. If we form an eſtimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that ſome public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their ſeveral pariſhes. The only records at preſent that can be appealed to are thoſe of the army; and, by the beſt information, they make the number of ſoldiers furniſhed by Scotland, in the war which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to obſerve, that about 60,000 of theſe were raiſed in the iſlands and Highlands, which form by far the leaſt populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, excluſive of the army, ſends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we conſult the moſt ancient and creditable hiſtories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, muſt have been exceſſive, as it afforded ſo many thouſands to fall by the ſwords of the Engliſh, without any ſenſible decreaſe of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of characteriſtical feature, that of high cheek-bones, reigns in their faces; they are lean, but clean-limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventurous ſpirit was chiefly owing to their laws of ſucceſſion, which inveſted the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very ſcanty portion for the other ſons. This obliged the latter to ſeek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native ſoil than the Scotch have in general. It is true, this diſparity of fortune among the ſons of one family prevails in England likewiſe; but the reſources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to thoſe of a country ſo narrow, and ſo little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may eaſily perceive that the ridiculous family-pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which prevailed there in all the horrors of blood and barbarity. The family differences, eſpecially of the Highlanders, familiariſed them to blood and ſlaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a ſubject of triumph. Theſe paſſions did not live in the breaſts of the common people only; for they were authoriſed and cheriſhed by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had ſeen the world, were converſant in the courts of Europe, maſters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, excepting ſome of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war; for in time of peace their civil authority was ſo little felt, that every clan or family, even in the moſt civiliſed parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as its ſovereign. Theſe prejudices were confirmed even by the laws, which gave thoſe petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own eſtates; and they generally executed their haſty ſentences in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which thoſe chieftains had of outvying each other in the number of their followers created perpetual animoſities, which ſeldom or never ended without bloodſhed; ſo that the common people, whoſe beſt qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their maſter, and the aggrandiſement of his name, lived in a ſtate of continual hoſtility.

The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the firſt chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependents, and to baniſh from them thoſe barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and there can ſcarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of ſociety.

From what has been ſaid, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the preſent time, as the forms of a Roman ſenate are to that of a popiſh conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent ſo quick and ſo ſudden a tranſition of manners.

The peaſantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can form their tempers better than they do to their ſtations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their paſſions, to behave ſubmiſſively to their ſuperiors, and live within the bounds of the moſt rigid economy. Hence they ſave their money and their conſtitutions; and few inſtances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at preſent in Scotland. They ſeldom enter ſingly upon any daring enterpriſe; but when they act in concert, the ſecrecy, ſagacity and reſolution, with which they carry on any deſperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the ſtrongeſt temptations ariſing from their poverty, is ſtill more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conſpiracies; witneſs that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midſt of 20,000 people: and though the agents were well known, and ſome of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found ſufficient to bring them to puniſhment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both ſexes, under a ſtill greater temptation, to the young pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could ſcarcely be believed, were it not well atteſted.

They affect a fondneſs for the memory and language of their fore-

fathers beyond perhaps any people in the world; but this attachment is ſeldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or diſguſtful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of ancient Scotch diſhes, ſuch as the haggeſs, the ſheep's head ſinged, the fiſh in ſauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. Theſe diſhes, in their original dreſſing, were ſavoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery have rendered them agreeable to the moſt delicate palates.

The inhabitants of moſt parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch tunes is reliſhed by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the ſubject; and many of the airs have been brought upon the Engliſh ſtage, with variations, under new names, but with this diſadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of muſic, they are moſtly altered for the worſe, being ſtript of their original ſimplicity, which, however irregular, is the moſt eſſential characteriſtic, is ſo agreeable to the ear, and has ſuch powers over the human breaſt. Thoſe of a more lively and merry ſtrain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dreſs, by the fifes, an inſtrument for which they are remarkably well ſuited. It has been ridiculouſly ſuppoſed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian ſecretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch muſic. This is a falſehood invented by his country, in envy to the Scots. Their fineſt tunes exiſted in their church muſic, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his miſtreſs in foreign diſpatches, ever compoſed an air during the ſhort time he lived in Scotland: but were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the muſic itſelf is ſufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not ſo much accuſtomed as the Engliſh are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reaſon they ſeem to enjoy them more completely. One inſtitution there is, at once ſocial and charitable, and that is, the contributions raiſed for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Thoſe feſtivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company conſiſts promiſcuouſly of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each gueſt pays according to his inclination or ability, but ſeldom under a ſhilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be ſervants in reſpectable families, the contributions are ſo liberal that they often eſtabliſh the young couple in the world.

The common people of Scotland retain the ſolemn decent manner of their anceſtors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the pariſh beadle is ſent round with a paſſing-bell; but he ſtops at certain places, and with a ſlow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceaſed, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceded by the magiſtrates and their officers, and the body is carried in a coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair-poles, to the grave, where it is interred, without any oration or addreſs to the people, or prayers, or farther ceremony, than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner as in England, but without any funeral ſervice. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called *coronachs*, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs: the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen, is the *Golf*, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength: it is played with a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket-ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball, which is loaded with lead and faced with horn. The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the *Mall*, which was common in England in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole wins the game. The diverſion of *Curling* is likewiſe, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding winter and ſummer diverſions in Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diverſions common in England, *cricket* excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen conſidering it as too athletic and mechanical.

Language and dress.] Theſe two articles are placed under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is compoſed of a woollen ſtuff, ſometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This conſiſts of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves on the judicious arrangement, or what they call ſets of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which, where ſkilfully managed, produce a pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſhirt, the Highlander wears a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very nearly the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in ancient ſtatues; ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leathern belt, ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupplies the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a *phelig*, but which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and which is probably the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt; and this they term the *phelibeg*, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings are likewiſe of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the phelibeg hung generally their knives and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron piſtol, ſometimes of fine workmanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dreſs), ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtrait ſleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle of a particular

faſhion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the Scots, and thoſe of the Tuſcans (who were unqueſtionably of Celtic original) as they are to be ſeen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful; for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. Its convenience, however, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that ſome of the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and, for its lightneſs and the freedom it gives to the body, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time.

The dreſs of the higher and middle ranks of the Low-country differs little or nothing from the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retain the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of the women of all ranks is much the ſame in both kingdoms.

The Earſe, or Celtic, is ſtill ſpoken in the Highlands; but the language of the Low-countries, which is of the ſame origin with the Engliſh, is continually extending. The Engliſh and Scotch are written in the ſame manner; and the pronunciation of the latter is ſcarcely more different from that of London than are thoſe of the northern and weſtern Engliſh counties.

PUNISHMENTS.] Theſe are pretty much the ſame in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden: the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England, to Scotland, by the regent, earl Morton; and it was firſt uſed for the execution of himſelf.

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottiſh hiſtorians, with Bede and other writers, generally agree that Chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by ſome of the diſciples of St. John the Apoſtle, who fled to this northern country to avoid the perſecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch hiſtorians call Donald the Firſt, his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptiſed. It was further confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Diocleſian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence of rank over the reſt of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romiſh church, which at length prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that

darkneſs which for ages overſpread Europe; though its dependence upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the blind ſubjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long maintained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Romiſh clergy, till the age of Robert Bruce in the 14th century, when they diſappeared. But it is worthy of obſervation, that the oppoſition to popery in this iſland, though it ceaſed in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England by John Wickliffe a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huſs and Jerom of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, and the age ſeemed greatly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for that great revolution; and the finiſhing blow to popery in England was reſerved to the reign of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and ſciences, began to revive in Europe, the abſurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not eſcape the notice of a free and inquiring people, but gave riſe to the reformation in Scotland. It began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that, upon the abolition of the Roman-catholic religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out thoſe poſſeſſions for themſelves, did not at firſt diſcourage this notion; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, which through the fury of the mob deſtroyed ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopoliſed all the church livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reformed clergy to live almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great ſtruggle or alteration in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the preſbyterian clergy of great importance to the ſtate; and their revenues have been ſo much mended, that, though no ſtipend there exceeds 250l. a year, few fall ſhort of 100l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland. It is ſufficient to ſay that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of oppoſition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment, at various periods, proved ſo tyranniſical over the laity, by having the power of the great and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes of life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who were extremely jealous of their being revived. Even that relic of popery, the oblig-

ing fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out, it having been found that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world. In ſhort, the power of the Scotch clergy is at preſent very moderate, or at leaſt very moderately exerciſed; nor are they accountable for the extravagancy of their predeceſſors. They have been, ever ſince the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Hanover, and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dreſs without clerical robes: but ſome of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no uſe of ſet forms in worſhip. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of epiſcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purpoſes. A thouſand pounds a year is always ſent by his majeſty for the uſe of proteſtant ſchools erected by act of parliament in North Britain, and the weſtern iſles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the ſupport of their widows and orphans. The number of pariſhes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, of which thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is ſerved by more than one miniſter.

The higheſt eccleſiaſtical authority in Scotland is the general aſſembly, which we may call the eccleſiaſtical parliament of Scotland. It conſiſts of commiſſioners, ſome of whom are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from preſbyteries, royal burghs, and univerſities. A preſbytery, conſiſting of leſs than twelve miniſters, ſends two miniſters and one ruling elder; if it contains between twelve and eighteen miniſters, it ſends three, and one ruling elder; if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters and two ruling elders; but if the preſbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſends five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk ſeſſions of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner, uſually a miniſter of their own body. Theſe commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſſembly. The ruling elders are often perſons of the firſt quality of the country.

The king preſides by his commiſſioners (who is always a nobleman) in this aſſembly, which meets annually in May; but he has no voice in their deliberations. This aſſembly chooſes a clergyman for its moderator, or ſpeaker. Appeals are brought from all the other eccleſiaſtical courts in Scotland to the general aſſembly; and no appeal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial ſynods are next in authority to the general aſſembly. They are compoſed of a number of the adjacent preſbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reverſible by the general aſſembly.

Subordinate to the ſynods, are preſbyteries, of which there are ſixty-nine in Scotland, each conſiſting of a number of contiguous pariſhes. The miniſters of theſe pariſhes, with one ruling elder choſen half yearly out of every ſeſſion, compoſe a preſbytery. Theſe preſbyteries meet in the head town of that diviſion, but have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds, though within theſe they have cogniſance of all eccleſiaſtical cauſes and matters. A chief part of their buſineſs is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and ſolemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or preſent in ſix months after a

vacancy; otherwiſe the preſbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſters, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act nearly as church-wardens do in England, by having the ſuperintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial truſt, and he is generally a lay-perſon of quality or intereſt in the pariſh. The elders are ſuppoſed to act in a kind of co-ordinacy with the miniſter, and to be aſſiſting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion table.

The office of miniſters, or preaching preſbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling elders; they alone can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, cathechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate or preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories.

The eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland formerly partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and of too much of the intolerance of popery: but at preſent it is mild and gentle; and the ſermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation. In the Low-lands there are a great number of ſeceding congregations. They maintain their own preachers, though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they oppoſe the civil power; or at leaſt the inſtances are rare and inconſiderable: and perhaps many of theſe *ſeceſſions* are juſtifiable on account of the great abuſes of patronage, by which many pariſhes have unworthy or incapable miniſters impoſed upon them, as is the caſe in many places in England.

A different ſet of diſſenters, in Scotland, conſiſt of the epiſcopalians, a few quakers, many baptiſts, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the Reſtoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recogniſe King William's title. The partiſans of that unhappy prince retained the epiſcopal religion: and king William's government was rendered ſo unpopular in Scotland, that, in queen Anne's time, the epiſcopalians were more numerous in ſome parts than the preſbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch epiſcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themſelves ſo well, that, at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, but thinly; the decline of the nonjurors having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy in Scotland. The Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government.

The defection of ſome great families from the cauſe of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconſiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the

iſlands: and though a violent oppoſition was lately raiſed againſt them, they appear to be as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhoprics, St. Andrew's and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhoprics, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roth, Caithneſs, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Iſles.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary hiſtory of Europe for 1400 years paſt. The weſtern parts and iſles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland; and many others ſince, whoſe names alone would make a long article. The writings of Adamnarus, and other authors who lived before and at the time of the Norman invaſion, which are ſtill extant, are ſpecimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, moſt unqueſtionably held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, ſettling, and ruling his favorite univerſities and other ſeminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flouriſhed in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure Engliſh as that bard; and his verſification is perhaps more harmonious. The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity has rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin ſtyle of Buchanan's hiſtory is equal in claſſical purity to that of any modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the fineſt compoſitions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbariſms of thoſe ſent them in anſwer. This has been conſidered as a proof that claſſical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery which in point of ingenuity and utility may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſtone. And ſince his time, the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great ſucceſs. Keil, in his phyſico-mathematical works, to the clearneſs of his reaſoning, has ſometimes added the colouring of a poet. Of all writers on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of ſir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehenſions, and for diffuſing that light through the world which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His Treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin purſued this new career, a geometrician no leſs famous diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the almoſt deſerted track of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simpſon, ſo well known for his illuſtrations of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and, above all, his Conic Sections, are ſufficient of themſelves to eſtabliſh the ſcientific reputation of his nativecountry.

This, however, does not reſt on the character of a few mathematicians and aſtronomers: the fine arts have been called ſiſters, to denote their affinity. There is the ſame connection between the ſciences, particularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematics, and phyſics, properly ſo called, were, in Scotland, accompanied by the other

branches of ſtudy to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, Whytt, Cullen, Brown, and Gregory, hold a diſtinguiſhed place.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the belles lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon.

But of all literary purſuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of Dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive, deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would with to practiſe it. Next to Locke's Eſſay on the Human Underſtanding, it is perhaps the beſt diſſection of the human mind that has appeared in modern times; and it is likewiſe the moſt uſeful ſupplement to that Eſſay.

It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels, which neither envy can blaſt, nor time can deſtroy.

UNIVERSITIES. The univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews*, founded in 1411 —Glaſgow†, 1454,—Aberdeen‖, 1477,—and Edinburgh ‡, 1582.

It is with pleaſure we inform our readers, that a conſiderable progreſs has been made in the erection of a new univerſity at Edinburgh, to which our moſt gracious ſovereign has been a very liberal benefactor. This edifice promiſes to be a noble monument of national taſte and ſpirit.

* St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Profeſſors in

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|---|---|---|
| Greek, | Moral Philoſophy, | Church Hiſtory, |
| Humanity, | Natural Philoſophy, | Divinity, |
| Hebre, | Mathematics, | Medicine. |
| Logic, | Civil Hiſtory, | |

† Glaſgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Profeſſors in

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Greek, | Moral Philoſophy, | Divinity, |
| Humanity, | Natural Philoſophy, | Civil and Scotch Law, |
| Hebrew, | Mathematics, | Medicine, |
| Oriental Languages, | Practical Aſtronomy, | Anatomy. |
| Logic, | Hiſtory, | |

‖ Aberdeen has properly two Colleges, viz. King's College, and Mariſchal College.

King's College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

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| Greek, | Philoſophy, | Civil Law, |
| Humanity, | Divinity, | Medicine. |
| Oriental Languages, | | |

Mariſchal College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

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| Greek, | Natural Philoſophy, | Divinity, |
| Oriental Languages, | Mathematics, | Medicine. |
| Moral Philoſophy and Logic, | | |

‡ Edinburgh has a Principal, and Profeſſors in

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Divinity, | Aſtronomy, | Rhetoric and Belles Letters, |
| Church Hiſtory, | Mathematics, | Botany, |
| Greek, | Civil Hiſtory, | Materia Medica, |
| Humanity, | Natural Hiſtory, | Inſt. of Phyſic and Medicine, |
| Oriental Languages, | Agriculture, | Practice of Medicine |
| Logic, | Scotch Law, | Chemiſtry, |
| Moral Philoſophy, | Civil Law, | Anatomy, |
| Natural Philoſophy, | Law of Nature and Nations, | Midwifery. |

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally claims the firſt place in this diviſion. The caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territory reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle; and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived; the High-ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides north and ſouth. In former times, the town was ſurrounded by water, excepting towards the eaſt; ſo that, when the French landed in Scotland during the regency of Mary of Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſuggeſted the idea of building very lofty houſes, divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the uſe of a family; ſo that the High-ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad, and well paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins to the city. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills at the diſtance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was ſo extremely inconvenient, that the Engliſh, who ſeldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepeſt impreſſion of Scotch naſtineſs, which became proverbial. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia is contained in the inſtrument which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they are fully deſcribed.

Facing the caſtle, as I have already obſerved, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holy-rood houſe. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan and under the direction of ſir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greateſt architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters; and the inſide contains magnificent apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern artiſts, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at preſent nothing can be more uncomfortable than its ſituation, at the bottom of bleak, unimproved crags and mountains, with ſcarcely a ſingle tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rows of ſtone galleries, ſupported with curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and

rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years before, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI., commonly called Herriot's Work, ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a noble ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.), has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be ſeen in England. One Balcanguhille, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is ſaid to have prevailed upon Jones to admit ſome barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have inſiſted that the ornaments of each ſhould be ſomewhat different from thoſe of the others. It is, notwithſtanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradeſmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days; they are, however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning; and its ſchools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented; and a muſeum belonging to it was given by ſir Andrew Balfour, a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural and ſome literary curioſities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament Square, or, as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of this city: it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which conſiſts of lofty buildings: and in the middle is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, has been by good judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a ſingle judge, called the lord-ordinary, preſides by rotation: in a room near it ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſhrievalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at firſt entirely founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquiſite taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scottiſh hiſtory, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining the library is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miſerably dark and diſmal. It is ſaid that preparations are now

carrying on for lodging both the books and papers in rooms far better ſuited to their importance and value.

The high church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general aſſembly ſits. It is a large Gothic building, and its ſteeple is ſurmounted by arches, formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to ſuch buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deſerves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, ſuch as the Exchange, public offices, its hoſpitals, bridges, and the like, demonſtrate the vaſt improvement of the taſte of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almoſt completed a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the preſent age. The ſtreets and ſquares are laid out with the utmoſt regularity, and the houſes are built with ſtone, in an elegant taſte, with all the conveniences that render thoſe of England ſo delightful and commodious. The fronts of ſome are ſuperbly finiſhed, diſplaying at the ſame time the judgment of the builder, and the public ſpirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a ſheet of water, bordered by a terras-walk, and the aſcent towards the new town covered with pleaſure-gardens, ſhrubberies, &c. But this elegant deſign fell to nothing, through the narrow ideas of the magiſtrates, who finding greater benefits by letting the ground to inferior tradeſmen upon building leaſes, this ſpot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuiſance to thoſe gentlemen who had been ſo liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the ſummit. A deciſion of the houſe of lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally diſtinguiſhed for his taſte and good ſenſe, heartily concurred) put a ſtop to theſe mean erections. At the weſt or upper end of this vale, the caſtle, a ſolid rock, not leſs than twenty ſtories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eaſtern extremity is bounded by a ſtriking object of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the deſcent on each ſide the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. I am the more particular in deſcribing this place, that the reader may form ſome idea of its pleaſant ſituation, ſtanding on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each ſide, in the heart of a rich country; the view ſouthward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic caſtle, and diſtant hills riſing to an amazing height; while the proſpect northward gives full ſcope to the eye, delights the imagination, and fills the mind with ſuch ideas as the works of nature alone can inſpire. One agreeable proſpect, however, is ſtill wanting, a handſome clean inn or tavern, with a genteel coffee-room, towards the ſide that overlooks the Forth; and which might eaſily be accompliſhed by ſubſcription; and, from the great reſort of travellers, could not fail to bring a profitable return.

Edinburgh may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and an open wall which incloſes it on the ſouth ſide, of a very modern fabric, but in the Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that in fact it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels, who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. Edinburgh contains a playhouſe, which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, aſ-

ſemblies, balls, muſic-meetings, and other polite amuſements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majeſty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provoſt, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treaſurer, annually choſen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooſes its own deacon, and here are 14; namely, ſurgeons, goldſmiths, ſkinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, maſons, tailors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provoſt is colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of his majeſty's dominions but in Edinburgh; they ſerve for the city watch, and patrol the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear a uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes ſixteen companies of trained bands, which ſerve as militia. The reveuues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid on every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of the city. This is a moſt judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burden. Its product, however, has been ſufficient to defray the expenſe of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes from the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expenſe and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains nothing remarkable but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guiſe, againſt the Engliſh, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are daily increaſing: ſome of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particulariſed here. I cannot however avoid mentioning the marquis of Abercorn's, a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-houſe, ſo called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, eſteemed one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburg.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, ſituated on a gentle declivity ſloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles weſt of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the ſecond city in Scotland, and, conſidering its ſize, the firſt in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and are broad, ſtraight, well paved, and conſequently clean. The houſes make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five ſtories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are ſupported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern-built churches are in the fineſt ſtyle of architecture; and the cathedral is a ſtupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which ſtands above another, and is furniſhed with a very fine ſpire ſpringing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a

maſterly and matchleſs fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who was biſhop of Glaſgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the rigid reformers by the reſolution of the citizens. The town houſe is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univerſity is eſteemed the moſt ſpacious and beſt built of any in Scotland, and is at preſent in a thriving ſtate. In this city are ſeveral well-endowed hoſpitals; and it is particularly well ſupplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of ſtrangers of any rank. They have lately built a handſome bridge acroſs the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particulariſe that, and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of this city, carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits ariſing from their vaſt commerce, both foreign and internal, which they carry on with amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven churches, and eight or ten meeting houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants has been eſtimated at 60,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the ſhire town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour: in it are three churches, and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting-houſes, a conſiderable degree of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well-frequented univerſity, and about 20,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, though almoſt joined to the New by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a moderately large market town, but has no haven. In each of theſe two places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic; is finely ſituated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Great Britain, called the Carſe of Gowry. This town is ſuppoſed to have increaſed one-third ſince the year 1745; and contains about 11,000 inhabitants. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 inhabitants; it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of conſiderable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to ſundry foreign parts; and has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the ſame county, of Angus: the firſt has a great and flouriſhing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are in an improving ſtate.

The ancient Scots valued themſelves upon truſting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced; and, indeed, at this day, their forts would make but a ſorry figure if regularly attacked. The caſtles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great ſtrength, could not hold out 48 hours, if beſieged by 6000 regular troops with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the Weſt Highlands, is ſufficient to bridle the inhabitants of that neighbourhood; as are Fort George and Fort Auguſtus, in the north and north-weſt: but none of them can be conſidered as defences againſt a foreign enemy.

I ſhall not pretend to enter upon a deſcription of the noble edifices that, within the courſe of this and the laſt century, have been erected for private perſons in Scotland, becauſe they are ſo numerous that to

particulariſe them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is ſufficient to ſay, that many of them are equal to ſome of the moſt ſuperb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's ſurpriſe at this will ceaſe, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapneſs of materials, where it can be gratified at ſo moderate an expenſe. This may likewiſe account for the ſtupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices, which anciently abounded in Scotland: but at the time of the Reformation they were moſtly demoliſhed by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in theſe practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exaſperated at the long and ſore ſufferings they had endured from the popiſh party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland have of themſelves furniſhed matter for large volumes. The ſtations of the Roman legions, their caſtella, their pretentures or walls reaching acroſs the iſland, have been traced with great preciſion by antiquaries and hiſtorians; ſo that, without ſome new diſcoveries, an account of them could afford no inſtruction to the learned, and but little amuſement to the ignorant; becauſe at preſent they can be diſcovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The courſe of the Roman wall, (or, as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name firſt broke over it), between the Clyde and Forth, which was firſt marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is ſtill diſcernible, as are ſeveral Roman camps in the neighbourhood*. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a ſtriking remain of Roman antiquity. It is ſituated at Ardoch, in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the bloody battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king, Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome,

* Near the weſtern extremity of this wall, at Duntocher in Dumbartonſhire, a countryman, in digging a trench on the declivity of a hill upon which are ſeen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up ſeveral uncommon tiles; which exciting the curioſity of the peaſantry in that neighbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an entire ſubterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart-load of theſe materials. A gentleman, who was then upon a journey through that part of Scotland, found means, upon the ſecond day, to ſtop all farther proceedings, in hopes that ſome public-ſpirited perſons would, by taking off the ſurface, explore the whole without demoliſhing it. The tiles are of ſeven different ſizes; the ſmalleſt being ſeven, and the largeſt twenty-one inches ſquare. They are from two to three inches in thickneſs, of a reddiſh colour, and in a perfectly ſound condition. The leſſer ones compoſed ſeveral rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of paſſages about eighteen inches ſquare; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, ſerve as a roof to ſupport the earth above, which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is ſurrounded by a ſubterraneous wall of hewn ſtone. The bones and teeth of animals, with a ſooty kind of earth, were found in the paſſages; from which ſome have conjectured this building to have been occupied as a hot-bed for the uſe of the neighbouring garriſon.

or of the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of the river Carron in Stirlingſhire, but has been lately barbarouſly demoliſhed by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the baſe was eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole it was one of the moſt complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial conical mounds of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis; which ſerve to evidence that there was a kind of ſolemn compromiſe between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former ſhould not extend their empire farther to the northward.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland: ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are eaſily diſcernible in ſeveral northern counties, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituations. Some houſes or ſtupendous fabrics remain in Roſs-ſhire; but whether they are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scottiſh, does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the deſcents of that people upon thoſe coaſts.

Two Pictiſh monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide, and without the ſtair-caſe; that of Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice; it conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn free-ſtone, laid circularly, and regularly tapering towards the top. If theſe columns are really Pictiſh, that people muſt have had among them architects that far exceeded thoſe of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman ſtyle of architecture. It is, however, difficult to aſſign them to any but the Picts, as they ſtand in their dominions; and ſome ſculptures upon that at Brechin denote it to be of Chriſtian origin. It is not indeed impoſſible that theſe ſculptures are of a later date. Beſides theſe two pillars, many other Pictiſh buildings are found in Scotland, but not of the ſame taſte.

The veſtiges of erections by the ancient Scots themſelves are not only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events of their hiſtory. That people had amongſt them a rude notion of ſculpture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obeliſks are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They are erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horſeback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day, but minutely deſcribed by Mr. Gordon. Many other hiſtorical monuments of the Scots may be diſcovered on the like occaſions; but it muſt be

acknowledged that the obſcurity of their ſculptures has opened a field of boundleſs and frivolous conjectures, ſo that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable, if I ſhould neglect to mention the ſtone near the town of Forreſs, or Fortroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the other in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (ſays Mr Gordon) perhaps one of the moſt ſtately monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about 23 feet in height above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than 12 or 15 feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt 35 feet, and its breadth near 5. It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, and ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſcured thoſe towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invaſion.

At Sandwick, in Roſs-ſhire, is a very ſplendid ancient obeliſk, ſurrounded at the baſe with large, well-cut flag ſtones, formed like ſteps. Both ſides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well-finiſhed carved work. The one face preſents a ſumptuous croſs, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and ſome uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central diviſion on the reverſe exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very ſtriking; and many parts of that fine building have ſtill the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The weſt door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice diſplays very elaborate workmanſhip.

Among the remains of ancient caſtles, may be mentioned Kildrumy caſtle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great ſtrength and magnificence, and often uſed as an aſylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverugie caſtle, the ancient ſeat of the earl-mareſchals of Scotland, is alſo a large and lofty pile, ſituated on a ſteep bank of the river; two very high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying ſtate, give the caſtle an air of much grandeur and antiquity. Vaſt rows of venerable trees, incloſing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntly are the ruins of Huntly caſtle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large ſquare towers, which had defended the gateway. The caſtle ſeems to be very old, and a great part of it is demoliſhed; but there is a maſſy building of a more modern date, in which ſome of the apartments, and in particular, their curious ceilings, are ſtill in tolerable preſervation. They are painted with a great variety of ſubjects, in ſmall diviſions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scottiſh antiquites, many Druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the Druidical erections in South Britain. There is in Perthſhire a barrow which ſeems to be a Britiſh erection, and the moſt beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world. It exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip with the keel uppermoſt. The common people call it

Ternay, which ſome interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ſhip of earth. It ſeems to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſcene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one inſtance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunſtaffage caſtle, is another, yielding vaſt quantities of pumices or ſcoriæ of different kinds, many of which are of the ſame ſpecies with thoſe of the Icelandic volcanoes. Among other natural curioſities of this country, mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like cryſtal, together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea ſhells; they are found on the top of a mountain called Scorna-Lappich, in Roſsſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping Cave, where water oozing through a ſpongy porous rock at the top, quickly conſolidates after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland have their deſcriptions and hiſtories; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vaniſh when they are ſkilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeſhire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimenſions, and have been the ſcenes of inhuman cruelties.

Commerce and manufactures.] In theſe reſpects Scotland has, for ſome years paſt, been in a very improving ſtate. Without entering into the diſputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take poſſeſſion of Darien, and to carry on the Eaſt and Weſt-India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed with a noble ſpirit of enterpriſe. The miſcarriage of that ſcheme, after receiving the higheſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independant, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languor of the Scottiſh commerce, and may other misfortunes which that country ſuſtained, by the diſguſt the inhabitants conceived on that account, and ſome invaſions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconſiſtent with the articles of union. The entails and narrow ſettlements of family eſtates, and ſome remains of the feudal inſtitutions, might contribute to the ſame effect.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the adminiſtration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the firſt miniſter who diſcovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more conſiderable object of governmental inquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a ſucceeding miniſter, purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan, and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that ever Great Britain was engaged in. Let me add to the honour of the Britiſh government, that the Scots have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſterior acts of parliament.

This is manifeſt from the extenſive trade they lately carried on with

the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe thirty years paſt has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scottiſh manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange for theſe, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation. The proſperity of Glaſgow and its neighbourhood has been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia and the Weſt Indies.

The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to its own coaſts, for the Scots have a great ſhare in the whale-fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of ſhipping employed in that article. The late improvements of their fiſheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily increaſing, open inexhauſtible funds of wealth; their cured fiſh being, by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, preferred to thoſe of Newfoundland.

The buſſes, or veſſels employed in the great herring fiſhery on the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-weſt parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring iſlands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port of Argyleſhire, facing the north of Ireland, where ſometimes 300 veſſels have been aſſembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and muſt return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are alſo under certain regulations reſpecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being judiciouſly calculated to promote the beſt of national purpoſes, its ſtrength, and its commerce. But though the political exiſtence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of her ſeamen, this noble inſtitution has hitherto proved ruinous to many of thoſe who have embarked in it, and, unleſs vigorouſly ſupported, muſt fail of attaining its object.

To encourage this fiſhery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament; but, whether from the inſufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpoſe, or any other cauſe, the bounty was with-held from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only ſinking their fortunes, but alſo borrowing to the utmoſt limits of their credit. The bounty has ſince been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the ſtrength of theſe promiſes they have again embarked in the fiſhery; and it is to be wiſhed that no conſideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement ſo requiſite to place their fiſhery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of theſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingſhire.

Their linen manufactory, notwithſtanding a ſtrong rivalſhip from Ireland, is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not ſuperior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been ſaid, ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Oſnaburgs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000l. excluſive of their home conſumption; and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are likewiſe making very

promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very conſiderable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths; but they make at preſent ſome broad-cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhon in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorkſhire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vaſt progreſs they have made in working the mines, and ſmelting the ore, of their country. Their coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their ſtone to account, by their contracts for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an increaſe of home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the caſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the unhappy breach with the colonies. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade mutual to both parts of Scotland. In ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, the harbours, and rivers of this country, come to be known, the better adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce, both foreign and domeſtic.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, ſome of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley alone employs an incredible number of hands in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs-works of every kind, delft-houſes, and paper-mills, are erected everywhere. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as in any part of Europe. After all that has been ſaid, many years will be required before the trade and improvements in Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event they never can give umbrage to the Engliſh, as the intereſts of the two people are, or ought to be, the ſame.

Having ſaid thus much, I cannot avoid obſerving the prodigious diſadvantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt of Scotland lie from her nobility and great land-holders having too fond an attachment for England, and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the Union, which removed the ſeat of her legiſlature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots will probably continue to be diſtreſſed for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be ſomewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vaſt manufactures and works now ſet on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland have wiſely abandoned French claret and brandy (though too much is ſtill made uſe in that country), for rum produced in the Britiſh plantations; and their own malt liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as thoſe in England; and it is ſaid that they have lately exported large quantites of their ale to London, Dublin, and the plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her ſon James VI. when the vaſt reſort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the Engliſh court occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which were double the value of a Scotch penny, and are ſtill current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only a corruption of two French words *bas pièce*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation that we have made of the Scotch ſhilling, holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but denominations of ſums. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame, as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order inſtituted, as the Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offenſive and defenſive league with Charlemagne, king of France; or, as others ſay, on account of his victory over Athelſtan, king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St. Andrew, that he and his poſterity ſhould ever bear in their enſigns the figure of that croſs on which the ſaint ſuffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often reſumed. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſet*, "None ſhall ſafely provoke me."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient conſtitution and government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preſervation of liberty; and it is certain that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the conſtitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his aſſuming or exerciſing a deſpotic authority. But the Scottiſh conſtitution of government was too much of the ariſtocratic kind to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was ſufficiently reſtrained; but the nobles, chieftains and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyranniſe over and oppreſs their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz.

"In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people my ſubjects: Firſt, that I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance, that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people, may enjoy true peace during our time under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons, of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, in all judgments I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may ſhow mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and committees to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the in-

tervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even entruſted with the executive part of the government. And ſo late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with, and ſon-in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of his people; as appears by the act ſtill extant. In ſhort, the conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe of theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks; and a prince who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the moſt overgrown of his ſubjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhowed a diſreſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were aſſiſted by the clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. Theſe were choſen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeſſes. The biſhops, for inſtance, choſe eight peers, and the peers eight biſhops; and theſe ſixteen jointly choſe eight barons (or knights of the ſhire), and eight commiſſioners for burghs: and to all thoſe were added eight great officers of ſtate, the chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; ſo that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being, by his clergy, and the places he had to beſtow, always ſure of the lords of the articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged that this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular ſyſtem; even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt ſight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wanted to form theſe lords of the articles into regular machines for his own deſpotic purpoſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences are well known. At the revolution, the Scots gave a freſh inſtance how well they underſtood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princeſs of Orange.

This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people of Scotland had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny ever ſince the Reſtoration. If it be aſked, Why did they ſubmit to that tyranny?—the anſwer is, In order to preſerve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to deſtroy by uniting them with England. They therefore choſe rather to ſubmit

to a temporary evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers, in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe; for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had the ſame deliberative and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the Reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, and the reſcue of the great criminal was commonly ſo much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions: the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes; a convention, or meeting of the ſtates, only met for the purpoſe of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great, and four leſſer officers of ſtate; the great were, the lord high chancellor, high treaſurer, privy ſeal, and ſecretary; the four leſſer were, the lords regiſter, advocate, treaſurer-depute, and juſtice-clerk. Since the Union, none of theſe continue, excepting the lords privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice-clerk; a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The offices of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight-marſhal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the ſame in England. The ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord-regiſter was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though this office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative by diſpoſing of his deputation, which laſted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to diſpute his report of the numbers upon diviſion. The lord advocate's office reſembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts, for breaches of the peace, and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath intereſt. Two ſolicitors are named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtants to the lord-advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, while the juſtice-general, an office I ſhall deſcribe hereafter, is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct, or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex feecialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is ſtill in being; and it was formerly an office of great ſplendor and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority (which is not the caſe in Eng-

land), in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy council of Scotland, before the Revolution, had, or aſſumed, inquiſitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now ſunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great Britain; and the civil and criminal cauſes in Scotland are chiefly cogniſable by two courts of judicature.

The firſt is that of the college of juſtice, which was inſtituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to ſupply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themſelves the names of the lords of council and ſeſſion, which the preſent members of the college of juſtice ſtill retain. This court conſiſts of a preſident and fourteen ordinary members, beſides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may ſit and vote, but have no ſalaries and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a ſtanding jury in all matters of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of ſurpriſe, that the Scots were ſo tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the eſſence of their laws, as to reſerve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, may be eaſily accounted for, becauſe thoſe laws and forms were eſſential to the poſſeſſion of eſtates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. The lords of council and ſeſſion act likewiſe as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the ſubject) reverſible by the Britiſh houſe of lords, to which an appeal lies. The ſupreme criminal judge was named the Juſticiar, and the court of juſticiary ſucceeded to his power.

The juſtice-court is the higheſt criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its preſent form it was inſtituted ſo late as the year 1672, when a lord-juſtice-general, removable at the king's pleaſure, was appointed. This lucrative office ſtill exiſts in the perſon of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are the juſtice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of ſeſſion. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as I have already hinted, without the neceſſity of their being unanimous.

Beſides theſe two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the ſame power, authority, privilege, and juriſdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenue there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer in England relating thereto, are likewiſe competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exerciſe certain powers which formerly belonged to the treaſury, and are ſtill veſted in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a ſupreme court, in all cauſes competent to its own juriſdiction: and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and juſtice-general upon the ſeas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the ſame: and upon freſh waters and navigable rivers, below the firſt bridge, or within flood-mark; ſo that nothing competent to its juriſdiction can be meddled with, in the firſt inſtance, but by the lord high-admiral and judges of his court. Sentences paſſed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before his court: but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the ſeſſion, or any other judicatory, unleſs in caſes not maritime. Cauſes are tried in this court by the civil law, which in ſome caſes is likewiſe the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wiſby, and the Hanſe-Towns, and other

maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord-admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal: but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a by-government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland: we shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron-courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally hereditable; but by a late act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being there enacted, that all high sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs, and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes, and steward-deputes, it is enacted that there shall only be one in each county, or stewartry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their office *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been likewise introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriff's courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours in the day-time. These courts, however petty, were in former days invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the kingdom, there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise pretty much the same powers as those in England. In former times their office, though of very old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognisance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The inſtitution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legiſlator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invaſion of England. They took cogniſance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to regiſter depoſitions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at preſent much diſuſed in Scotland.

From the above ſhort view of the Scotch laws and inſtitutions, it is plain that they were radically the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, their oldeſt law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, ſay that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exiſt in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extenſive; and before the Union they made laws relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners and merchants by whom they were freighted; to manufactures, ſuch as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fiſh, ſalmon, and herrings, and to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation; they fix the ſtaple port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conſervator is indeed nominated by the crown; but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his ſalary: ſo that in truth the whole ſtaple trade is ſubjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very ſingular inſtitution, and ſufficiently proves the vaſt attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of commerce.

The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law-reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch practice; and their acts of *ſederunt* anſwer to the Engliſh rules of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeaſances; their poinding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries; and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, diſmiſs this head without one obſervation, which proves the ſimilarity between the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scottiſh conſtitution, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here tranſacted, judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the ſame nature as the Saxon Folemote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

History.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of ſyſtem and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were probably the firſt inhabitants; the Picts undoubtedly were the Britons who were forced north-

wards by the Belgic Gauls, about fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and who, ſettling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots moſt probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had ſerved in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people in proceſs of time were ſubdued by the Scots.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march toward Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the ſentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble hiſtorian with the ſame generous paſſion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward to the province of the Horeſti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwiſe called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch hiſtorians, the twenty-firſt in a lineal deſcent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been diſputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman hiſtories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a ſucceſſion of brave and wiſe princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant reſiſtance obliged Agricola himſelf, and, after him, the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Friths of Clyde and Forth already mentioned, and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway-Frith, which will be deſcribed in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never ſubdued.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Chriſtian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before-mentioned, were the deſcendents of the ancient Britons forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and, being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined the Romans againſt the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the ſame original, and conſidered themſelves as one people; ſo that the Scots monarchy ſuffered a ſhort eclipſe; but it broke out with more luſtre than ever, under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his ſucceſſors gave many ſevere overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 1448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a Britiſh hiſtorian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very ſea; ſo that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief; and in the famous letter, which they called *their groans*, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up

by the ſea, or periſhing by the ſwords of the barbarians: for ſo all nations were called who were not Romans, or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldeſt hiſtories, and thoſe that are leaſt favourable to monarchy, that the ſucceſſion to the crown of Scotland ſtill continued in the family of Fergus, but generally deſcended collaterally; till the inconveniencies of that mode of ſucceſſion were ſo much felt, that by degrees it fell into diſuſe, and it was at laſt ſettled in the deſcending line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince ſo much reſpected, that his friendſhip was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which continued inviolate while the monarchy of Scotland had an exiſtence. No fact of equal antiquity is better atteſted than this league, together with the great ſervice performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civiliſing the vaſt dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already obſerved under the article of Learning. The Picts ſtill remained in Scotland, as a ſeparate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſubdued them; but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſtorians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themſelves with their conquerors, by taking their names, and adopting their laws. The ſucceſſors of Keneth Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetual wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the eaſt; who, being maſters of the ſea, harraſſed the Scots by powerful invaſions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the Engliſh: for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs who then governed England were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots, who maintained their freedom and independency, not only againſt foreigners, but againſt their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaëlic words which ſignify a *large head*, but moſt probably from his great capacity, was the eighty-ſixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder of the monarchy; the forty-ſeventh from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-ſecond from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakſpeare, who keeps cloſe to the facts delivered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory, previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wiſe and a magnanimous prince, and in no reſpect inferior to his cotemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſurnamed the Outlaw, ſon to Edmund Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter Maud was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwick, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. They were

ſucceeded by Edgar, the ſon of Malcolm III. who was a wiſe and valiant prince; he was ſucceeded by Alexander I. and upon his death David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithſtanding the endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, it yet appears that David was one of the greateſt princes of that age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legiſlator. The noble actions he performed in the ſervice of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the Engliſh crown, give us the higheſt idea of his virtues, as they could be the reſult only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his crown; and his poſſeſſions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to this iſland. His actions and adventures, and the reſources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the firſt rank. If he appeared to be too laviſh to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to conſider theſe were the only means by which he could then civiliſe his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are ſaid to have been compiled under his inſpection by learned men, whom he aſſembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon Malcolm IV. and he by William, ſurnamed, from his valour, The Lion. William's ſon, Alexander II. was ſucceeded, in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, firſt, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders's daughter; David, and Margaret who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him, Eric, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway; in whom king William's whole poſterity failed; and the crown of Scotland returned to the deſcendants of David earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

This detail has been given, becauſe it is connected with great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandſon to David earl of Huntingdon by his eldeſt daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandſon to the ſame earl of Huntingdon by his youngeſt daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion, which were not ſo well eſtabliſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the caſe very difficult. Both parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt; but after a confuſed inter-regnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed in referring the deciſion to Edward I. of England, the moſt politic and ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived ſome obſolete abſurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and, finding that Baliol was diſpoſed to hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a ſlave, without Baliol's reſenting it.

After this, Edward uſed many endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland to his own, which were often defeated; and though Edward for a ſhort time made himſelf maſter of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt againſt him on every favourable opportunity. Thoſe of them who were ſo zealouſly attached to the independency of their country, as to be reſolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but

few, compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which was the ſame: and for ſome time they were obliged to temporiſe. Edward availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted of a formal ſurrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a penſion, but detained him in England; and ſent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him, and moſt barbarouſly carried off or deſtroyed all the monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidence of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic ſtone, which is ſtill to be ſeen in Weſtminſter Abbey.

Theſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible of their ſlavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward, finding their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, endeavoured to careſs them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his own ſubjects, by projecting a union, the chief articles of which have ſince taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with diſdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions that entitled him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being however no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increaſing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the firſt competitor, began to ſuſpect that he had an eye upon the crown, eſpecially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's vice-roy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the ſtates of Scotland their protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed violent cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſciplined army England had ever ſeen; for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſemen completely armed, and 4000 light-armed; and was attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body; Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his beſt troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave regent was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, whoſe troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vaſt loſs, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who moſt ungenerouſly put him to death at London, as a traitor. Edward died as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland with a ſtill more deſolating ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk, but not before he had inſpired his ſon, who was a priſoner at large about the Engliſh court, with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he aſſumed the crown, but was defeated by the Engliſh (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After his defeat, he fled with one or

two friends to the weſtern iſles and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and ſufferings were as inexpreſſible, as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas eſpecially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughters were ſent priſoners to England, where the beſt of his friends and two of his brothers were put to death, yet ſuch was his perſevering ſpirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who raiſed an army more numerous and better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conqueſt of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of 100,000 men, though this has been ſuppoſed to be an exaggerated computation: however, it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them veterans, who had been bred up in a deteſtation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led his powerful army towards Stirling, then beſieged by Bruce, who had choſen, with the greateſt judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and ſir Giles Argenton. Thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother ſir Edward, who, next to himſelf, was reckoned to be the beſt knight in Scotland, his nephew, Randolph, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-ſteward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmneſs of Bruce and his friends to reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that they gained one of the moſt complete victories that is recorded in hiſtory. The great loſs of the Engliſh fell upon the braveſt part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in perſon againſt Bruce himſelf. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men. There certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors loſt 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were either killed or taken priſoners. Their camp, which was immenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himſelf, with a few followers, favoured by the goodneſs of their horſes, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing-boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314*.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a ſeries of the moſt glorious ſucceſſes; and ſo well did his nobility underſtand the principles of civil liberty, and ſo unfettered were they by religious conſiderations, that, in a letter they ſent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide Baliol for debaſing the crown, by holding it of England; and that they would do the ſame by Robert, if he ſhould make the like attempt. Robert, having thus delivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greateſt part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by expoſing himſelf too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, made an ad-

* That the Scots of thoſe days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muſes, may be ſeen from a ſcoming ballad made on this memorable victory, which begins as follows:

Maydens of England ſore may you mourn,
For your lemans you have loſt at Bannockburn.
With heve a low!
What ho! ween'd the king of England,
So ſoon to have won all Scotland?
With rumby low.

vantageous peace with England; and died in 1328, with the character of being the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon David II. He was a virtuous prince; but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother-in-law and enemy, Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as eager as any of his predeceſſors to effect the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham; and, after continuing above eleven years in captivity, paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace, without iſſue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from reigning; ſo that he was forced to truſt the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who ſeems to have had an intention to procure the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to ſend his ſecond ſon to France; but he was moſt ungeneroufly intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and, after ſuffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ranſom. During the impriſonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greateſt height in France, where they ſupported that tottering monarchy againſt England, and their generals obtained ſome of the firſt titles of the kingdom.

James, the firſt of that name, upon his return to Scotland, diſcovered great talents for government, enacted many wiſe laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he ſaw the feudal ſyſtem refined from many of the imperfections which ſtill adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover ſuch lands as had been unjuſtly wreſted from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns, but the execution of theſe deſigns coſt him his life; he being murdered in his bed by ſome of the chief nobility in 1437, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

A long minority ſucceeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greateſt of his anceſtors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been ſuddenly killed by the accidental burſting of a cannon, in the thirtieth year of his age, as he was beſieging the caſtle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the Engliſh.

Suſpicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are viſible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was cloſed by a rebellion of his ſubjects, being ſlain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His ſon, James IV. was the moſt accompliſhed prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave: he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his ſubjects, ſo that they greatly increaſed in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was ſplendid and reſpectable. Even this alliance could not

cure him of his family diſtemper, a predilection for the French, in whoſe cauſe he raſhly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the Engliſh, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth of his age.

The minority of his ſon, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the firſt being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the houſe of Guiſe. He inſtituted the court of ſeſſion, enacted many ſalutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was ſo equally poiſed between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendſhip was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent preſents. But James took little ſhare in foreign affairs; he ſeemed rather to imitate his predeceſſors in their attempts to humble the nobility: and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he permitted, at the inſtigation of the clergy, a religious perſecution; though it is generally believed, that, had he lived longer, he would have ſeiſed all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having rather ſlighted ſome friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this ſhort expedition, the Engliſh army retired to Berwick. Upon this the king of Scotland ſent ten thouſand men to the weſtern borders, who entered England at Solway-Frith; and he himſelf followed them at a ſmall diſtance, ready to join them upon occaſion. He ſoon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commiſſion, and conferring the command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The army were ſo much diſguſted with this alteration, that they were ready to diſband, when a ſmall body of Engliſh horſe appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic ſeiſed the Scots, who immediately took to flight, ſuppoſing themſelves to be attacked by the whole body of the Engliſh army. The Engliſh horſe, ſeeing them flee with ſuch precipitation, cloſely purſued them, and ſlew great numbers, taking priſoners ſeven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred ſoldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This diſaſter ſo much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illneſs, of which he ſoon after died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and ſucceſſor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her miſconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in hiſtory. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that, during her minority, and while ſhe was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland; that being called to the throne of her anceſtors while a widow, ſhe married her own couſin-german, the lord Darnley, whoſe untimely death has given riſe to ſo much controverſy. The conſequence of her huſband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was conſidered as his murderer, was an inſurrection of her ſubjects, from whom ſhe fled into England, where ſhe was ungenerouſly detained a priſoner for eighteen years, and afterwards, on motives of ſtate-policy, beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-ſixth year of her age.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded, in right of his blood

from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engliſh crown, after ſhowing conſiderable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, deſtroyed the independency, as it impoveriſhed the people, of Scotland: for, the ſeat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for ſituations in other countries. James, after a ſplendid but troubleſome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince by his deſpotic principles and conduct induced both his Scottiſh and Engliſh ſubjects to take up arms againſt him; and, indeed, it was in Scotland that the ſword was firſt drawn againſt Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himſelf into the power of the Scottiſh army; they at firſt treated him with reſpect, but afterwards delivered him up to the Engliſh parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was ſaid to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made ſeveral bloody but unſucceſsful attempts to reſtore his ſon, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter, 1651, after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the common-wealth of England and the protector gave law to Scotland.

The ſtate of parties in England, at the acceſſion of queen Anne, was ſuch, that the Whigs once more had recourſe to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate union as it now ſtands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would liſten to the propoſal; but, at laſt, partly from conviction, and partly through the effects of money diſtributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; ſince which event, the hiſtory of Scotland becomes the ſame with that of England.

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# ENGLAND.

## EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| MILES. | | DEGREES. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 380 | between | 50 and 56 North latitude. |
| Breadth 300 | between | 2 Eaſt and 6-20 Weſt longitude. |

Great Britain contains 79,712 ſquare miles, with 119 inhabitants to each.

CLIMATE AND BOUNDARIES. THE longeſt day in the northern parts contains 17 hours and 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt in the ſouthern near eight hours. It is bounded on the North by that part of the iſland called Scotland; on the Eaſt by the German Ocean; on the Weſt by St. George's Channel; and on the South by the Engliſh Channel, which parts it from France; and contains 49,450 ſquare miles.

The ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, ſo that the inhabitants on part of the ſea-coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the other hand it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the ſame degree of latitude, are ſubject; and it is, on that ac-

# ENGLAND and WALES from the best AUTHORITIES.

## References to the Counties.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Cornwall | 27 | Glamorganshire |
| 2 | Devonshire | 28 | Brecknockshire |
| 3 | Dorsetshire | 29 | Caermarthenshire |
| 4 | Somersetshire | 30 | Pembrokeshire |
| 5 | Wiltshire | 31 | Radnorshire |
| 6 | Hampshire | 32 | Cardiganshire |
| 7 | Sussex | 33 | Montgomeryshire |
| 8 | Kent | 34 | Monmouthshire |
| 9 | Surry | 35 | Flintshire |
| 10 | Berkshire | 36 | Denbighshire |
| 11 | Gloucestershire | 37 | Caernarvonshire |
| 12 | Oxfordshire | 38 | Anglesea |
| 13 | Buckinghamshire | 39 | Shropshire |
| 14 | Middlesex | 40 | Staffordshire |
| 15 | Bedfordshire | 41 | Leicestershire |
| 16 | Hartfordshire | 42 | Rutlandshire |
| 17 | Essex | 43 | Lincolnshire |
| 18 | Suffolk | 44 | Nottinghamshire |
| 19 | Norfolk | 45 | Derbyshire |
| 20 | Cambridgeshire | 46 | Cheshire |
| 21 | Huntingdonshire | 47 | Lancashire |
| 22 | Northamptonshire | 48 | Yorkshire |
| 23 | Warwickshire | 49 | Westmoreland |
| 24 | Worcestershire | 50 | Durham |
| 25 | Herefordshire | 51 | Cumberland |
| 26 | Monmouthshire | 52 | Northumberland |

British Statute Miles.

10 30 50 80

SCOTLAND

NORTH SEA

IRELAND

IRISH SEA

I. of Man

St GEORGE'S CHANNEL

BRISTOL CHANNEL

ENGLISH CHANNEL

GERMAN OCEAN

NETHERLANDS

FRANCE

Berwick upon Tweed
Holy Isle
Lauder
Peebles
Selkirk
Jedburgh
Belford
Alnwick
Rothbury
Bellingham
Morpeth
Newcastle
Tinmouth
Shields
Sunderland
Durham
Hartlepool
Jers.R.
Whitby
Scarborough
Flamborough Hd
Filey Bay
Spurn Hd
Grimsby
Lincoln
Boston
The Wash
Cley
Lynn Regis
Wolferton
Norwich
Yarmouth
Lowestoff
Southwold
Dunwich
Aldborough
Orford
Ipswich
Harwich
Colchester
Maldon
Chelmsford
Epping
Romford
LONDON
Greenwich
Deptford
Croydon
Rochester
Chatham
Sheerness
Margate
N. Foreland
Ramsgate
Canterbury
Deal
Dover
Hythe
Romney
Rye
Winchelsea
Hastings
St Bourne
Beachy Hd
Selsey Bill
Portsmouth
Isle of Wight
Chichester
Arundel
Brighthelmston
Lewes
Guildford
Godalming
Farnham
Bagshot
Windsor
Eton
Staines
Hounslow
Kingston
Brentford
Uxbridge
Harrow
Watford
Barnet
Hatfield
Hertford
Ware
Royston
Cambridge
Newmarket
Bury
Thetford
Diss
Brandon
Ely
Peterborough
Stamford
Grantham
Boston
Alford
Wainfleet
Louth
Gainsborough
Retford
Doncaster
Barnsley
Wakefield
Leeds
Halifax
Bradford
Otley
Skipton
Settle
Ripon
Thirsk
Easingwold
Malton
Scarborough
Whitby
Richmond
Darlington
Stockton
Hartlepool
Jers.R.
Durham
Newcastle
Morpeth
Alnwick
Rothbury
Berwick upon Tweed
Holy Isle
Lauder
Peebles
Selkirk
Jedburgh
Belford
Dumfries
Annan
Langholm
Carlisle
Brampton
Kirkaldbright
Stranraer
Wigtown
Mull of Galloway
Cockermouth
Workington
Whitehaven
St Bees Hd
Egremont
Appleby
Ambleside
Kendal
Lancaster
Garstang
Preston
Clitheroe
Ormskirk
Wigan
Rochdale
Manchester
Liverpool
Newton
Warrington
Frodsham
Chester
Holywell
Flint
Denbigh
Ruthin
Wrexham
Overton
Malpas
Nantwich
Namptwich
Middlewich
Northwich
Knutsford
Macclesfield
Stockport
Ashton
Oldham
Rochdale
Halifax
Bradford
Leeds
Otley
Harrogate
Knaresborough
Wetherby
Tadcaster
York
Selby
Howden
Beverley
Kingston upon Hull
Patrington
Hornsea
Burlington
Driffield
Malton
Pickering
Whitby
Guisborough
Stockton
Darlington
Richmond
Middleham
Askrig
Hawes
Sedbergh
Kirkby Lonsdale
Lancaster
Hornby
Kirkby
Ulverston
Dalton
Furness
Broughton
Millom
Ramsey
Douglas
Castleton
Peel
Kirkmichael
Ramsey
Kirkmichael
Whitehaven
Workington
Cockermouth
Keswick
Penrith
Appleby
Brough
Kirkby Stephen
Hawes
Askrig
Middleham
Richmond
Darlington
Stockton
Durham
Sunderland
Shields
Tinmouth

count, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on a dry ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occaſioned by refreſhing ſhowers and the warm vapours of the ſea.

NAME AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN. Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; ſome derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level countsy, but the common etymology appears to be preferable, according to which it is derived from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which furniſhed a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this iſland. In the time of the Romans, the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies: other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The weſtern tract of England, which is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of ſtrangers*, becauſe inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were ſtrangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England, they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the ſouthern parts of the kingdom.

2. Britannia Secunda, containing the weſtern parts, comprehending Wales. And

3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To theſe diviſions ſome add the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England, about the year 450, and when they were eſtabliſhed in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themſelves, after the manner of other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the moſt inſtrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political confederacy, conſiſting of ſeven kingdoms. In time of war, a chief was choſen from the ſeven kings, by public conſent; ſo that the Saxon heptarchy appears to have ſomewhat reſembled the conſtitution of Greece, during the heroic ages.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, uſually ſtyled the Saxon Heptarchy.

| KINGDOMS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt in 475, and ended in 823 | Kent | Canterbury |
| 2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600 | Suſſex | Chicheſter |
| | Surry | Southwark |
| 3. Eaſt Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793 | Norfolk | Norwich |
| | Suffolk | Bury St. Edmund's |
| | Cambridge, with The Iſle of Ely | Cambridge<br>Ely |
| 4. WeſtSaxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060 | Cornwall | Launceſton |
| | Devon | Exeter |
| | Dorſet | Dorcheſter |

| KINGDOMS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| West Saxons continued. | Somerset | Bath |
| | Wilts | Salisbury |
| | Hants | Winchester |
| | Berks | Abingdon |
| 5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792 | Lancaster | Lancaster |
| | York | York |
| | Durham | Durham |
| | Cumberland | Carlisle |
| | Westmorland | Appleby |
| | Northumberland and Scotland, to the Frith of Edinburgh | Newcastle |
| 6. East Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746 | Essex | London |
| | Middlesex, and part of Hertford | |
| 7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874 | The other part of Hertford | Hertford |
| | Glocester | Glocester |
| | Hereford | Hereford |
| | Worcester | Worcester |
| | Warwick | Warwick |
| | Leicester | Leicester |
| | Rutland | Oakham |
| | Northampton | Northampton |
| | Lincoln | Lincoln |
| | Huntingdon | Huntingdon |
| | Bedford | Bedford |
| | Buckingham | Aylesbury |
| | Oxford | Oxford |
| | Stafford | Stafford |
| | Derby | Derby |
| | Salop | Shrewsbury |
| | Nottingham | Nottingham |
| | Chester | Chester |

It is the more necessary to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. The circuits are:

| CIRCUITS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| I. Home circuit | Essex | Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford. |
| | Hertford | Hertford, St. Albans, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishop's-Stortford, Berkhamstead, Hemsted, and Barnet. |
| | Kent | Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, |

| CIRCUITS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| I. Home circuit continued... | Kent .... | Sheerneſs, Tunbridge, Margate, Graveſend, and Milton. |
| | Surry | Southwark, Kingſton, Guildford, Croydon, Epſom, Richmond, Wandſworth, Batterſea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagſhot, Egham, and Darking. |
| | Suſſex | Chicheſter, Lewes, Rye, Eaſt Grinſtead, Haſtings, Horſham, Midhurſt, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelſea, Battel, Brighthelmſtone, and Petworth. |
| II. Norfolk circuit .... | Bucks .... | Ayleſbury, Buckingham, High Wickham, Great Marlow, Stoney-Stratford, and Newport Pagnel. |
| | Bedford .... | Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunſtable, Luton, and Biggleſwade. |
| | Huntingdon .... | Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmancheſter, St. Neot's, Ramſey, and Yaxley. |
| | Cambridge .... | Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royſton, and Wiſbech. |
| | Suffolk .... | Bury, Ipſwich, Sudbury, Leoſtoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Haleſworth, Mildhenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long Melford, Stratford, and Eaſtbergholt. |
| | Norfolk .... | Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, Yarmouth. |
| III. Oxford circuit .... | Oxon .... | Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, Woodſtock, and Thame. |
| | Berks .... | Abingdon, Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham. |
| | Glouceſter .... | Glouceſter, Tewkſbury, Cirenceſter, part of Briſtol, Camden, Stow, Berkley, Durſley, Lechlade, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marſhfield. |
| | Worceſter .... | Worceſter, Eveſham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminſter, and Perſhore. |
| | Monmouth .... | Monmouth, Chepſtow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport. |
| | Hereford .... | Hereford, Leominſter, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Roſs. |
| | Salop .... | Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Biſhop's Caſtle, Whitchurch, Oſweſtry, Wem, and Newport. |

| CIRCUITS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| Oxford circuit continued | Stafford | Stafford, Litchfield, Newcaſtle-under-Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone. |
| IV. Midland circuit | Warwick | Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulceſter, Nuneaton, and Atherton. |
| | Leiceſter | Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, Aſhby-de-la-Zouch, Boſworth, and Harborough. |
| | Derby | Derby, Cheſterfield, Wirkſworth, Aſhbourne, Bakewell, Balſover, and Buxton. |
| | Nottingham | Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, Eaſt and Weſt Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Workſop, and Blithe. |
| | Lincoln | Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimſby, Gainſborough, Louth, and Horncaſtle. |
| | Rutland | Oakham and Uppingham. |
| | Northampton | Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapſton, Towceſter, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell. |
| V. Weſtern circuit | Hants | Wincheſter, Southampton, Portſmouth, Andover, Baſingſtoke, Chriſtchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumſey, Alresford and Newport, Yarmouth and Cowes, in the Iſle of Wight. |
| | Wilts | Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmſbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbride, Bradford and Warminſter. |
| | Dorſet | Dorcheſter, Lyme, Sherborne, Shafteſbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn. |
| | Somerſet | Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilcheſter, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glaſtonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunſter, Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croſcomb, and Froome. |
| | Devon | Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtable, Biddeford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, Okehampton, Aſhburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totneſs, Axminſter, Plympton, and Ilfracomb. |
| | Cornwall | Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Saltaſh, Bodmyn, St. Iyes, Padſtow, |

| CIRCUITS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| Western circuit continued. | Cornwall ..... | Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leikeard, Leftwithiel, Helfton, Penzance, and Redruth. |
| VI. Northern circuit*. | York ..... | York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncafter, Whitby, Beverley, Northallerton, Burlington, Knarefborough, Barnefley, Sherborne, Bradford, Tadcafter, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirfke, Gifborough, Pickering, and Yarum. |
| | Durham ..... | Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Caftle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland. |
| | Northumberland | Newcaftle, Tinmouth, North Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham. |
| | Lancafter .... | Lancafter, Manchefter, Preflon, Liverpool, Wigan, Rochdale, Warrington, Bury, Ormfkirk, Hawkfhead, and Newton. |
| | Weftmorland .. | Appleby, Kendal, Lonfdale, Kirby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleflde, Burton, and Milthorpe. |
| | Cumberland.... | Carlifle, Penrith Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglafs, Egremont, Keftwick, Workington, and Jerby. |

Middlefex is not comprehended in thefe circuits; nor Chefhire, which, being a county palatine, enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The fame may be faid of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Counties exclufive of the circuits. | Middlefex .... | London, firft meridian, north lat. 51° 31. Weftminfter, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelfea, Highgate, Hampftead, Kenfington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court. |
| | Chefter ..... | Chefter, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Norwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodifham and Haulton. |

## CIRCUITS OF WALES.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| North-Eaft circuit.... | Flint..... | Flint, St. Afaph, and Holywell. |
| | Denbigh ..... | Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen. |
| | Montgomery .. | Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welch-Pool. |

* In the Lent or Spring aflizes, the Northern circuits extend only to York and Lancafter: the aflizes at Durham, Newcaftle, Appleby, and Carlifle being held only in the Autumn, and diftinguifhed by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

| CIRCUITS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| North-Weſt circuit | Angleſea | Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh. |
| | Caernarvon | Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullhilly. |
| | Merioneth | Dolgelly, Bala, and Haleigh. |
| South Eaſt circuit | Radnor | Radnor, Preſtean, and Knighton. |
| | Brecon | Brecknock, Built, and Hay. |
| | Glamorgan | Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swanſey. |
| South-Weſt circuit | Pembroke | St. David's, Haverfordweſt, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiſcard, and Milfordhaven. |
| | Cardigan | Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer. |
| | Caermarthen | Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Llanimdovery, Landilobawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy. |

## In ENGLAND.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 40 | Counties, which ſend up to parliament | 80 knights. |
| 25 | Cities (Ely none, London four) | 50 citizens. |
| 167 | Boroughs, two each | 334 burgeſſes. |
| 5 | Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrers, and Monmouth), one each | 5 burgeſſes. |
| 2 | Univerſities | 4 repreſentatives. |
| 8 | Cinque ports (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hithe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford), two each | 16 barons. |

## WALES.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 12 | Counties | 12 knights. |
| 12 | Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none), one each | 12 burgeſſes. |

## SCOTLAND.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 33 | Shires | 30 knights. |
| 37 | Cities and Boroughs | 15 burgeſſes. |
| | Total | 558 |

Beſides the fifty-two counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, to which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county diſtinct from Middleſex; the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Exeter, Norwich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton-upon-Hull, and Newcaſtle-upon-Tine, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which they lie. The ſame may be ſaid of Berwick-upon-Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and has within its juriſdiction a ſmall territory of two miles on the north ſide of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained; for

every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is ſo called, becauſe it ſends up burgeſſes to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and ſome not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they ſtill ſend burgeſſes to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that has, or has had, a biſhop; for if the biſhoprick be diſſolved, yet the city remains. To have ſuburbs, proves it to be a city. Some cities are alſo counties, as before mentioned.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The ſoil of England and Wales differs in each county, not ſo much from the nature of the ground, though that muſt be admitted to occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from the progreſs which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marſhes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. To enter upon particular ſpecimens and proofs of theſe improvements, would require a large volume. All that can be ſaid, therefore, is, in general, that, if no unkindly ſeaſon happen, England produces corn not only ſufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring large ſums of ready money for her exports.

The ſoil of England ſeems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber; and the plantations of trees round the houſes of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing at the ſame time. Some have obſerved a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the great fleets that England put to ſea; but as no public complaints of this kind have been heard, it may be ſuppoſed that great ſtores are ſtill in reſerve; unleſs it may be thought that our ſhipyards have lately been partly ſupplied from America or the Baltic.

As to air, little can be added to what has been already ſaid concerning the climate*. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic ocean by weſterly winds; but they are ventilated by winds and ſtorms, ſo that in this reſpect England is, to foreigners and people of delicate conſtitutions, more diſagreeable than unſalubrious. It cannot, however, be denied that in England the weather is ſo exceſſively capricious and unfavourable to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to fly to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have obſerved on the Engliſh air, the reader may form ſome idea of its ſeaſons, which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no deſcription. Spring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, ſucceed each other; but in what month their different appearances take place, is very un-

* The climate of England has more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit the opinion of king Charles the Second upon this ſubject, which is corroborated by that of ſir William Temple: and it may be obſerved, that they were both travellers. "I muſt needs add one thing," ſays ſir William, in his *Miſcellanea*, part ii. p. 114, edit. 8vo. 1690, "in favour of our climate, which I heard the king "ſay, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England, that loved and "eſteemed his own country. It was in reply to ſome company that were reviling our "climate, and extolling thoſe of Italy and Spain, or at leaſt of France. He ſaid, "He thought that was the beſt climate where he could be abroad in the air with "pleaſure, or at leaſt without trouble or inconvenience, the moſt days in the year, "and the moſt hours in the day; and this he thought he could be in England, more "than in any country he knew in Europe." "And I believe," adds ſir William, "it "is true, not only of the hot and the cold, but even among our neighbours in "France and the Low Countries themſelves, where the heats or the colds, and changes "of ſeaſons, are leſs treatable (or moderate) than they are with us."

determined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoar-froſt inſtead of bloſſoms. The beginning of June is ſometimes as cold as the middle of December; yet at other times the thermometer riſes in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its viciſſitudes of heat and cold; and, upon an average, September, and next to it October, are the two moſt agreeable months in the year. The natives ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. This inconſtancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at moſt three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth; and it is hardly ever obſerved that the inhabitants ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even the greateſt irregularity and the moſt unfavourable appearance of the ſeaſons are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom with ſcarcity. Perhaps this, in a great meaſure, may be owing to the vaſt improvements of agriculture; for when ſcarcity has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the exceſſive exportations of grain, on account of the drawback and the profit of the returns.

The champaign parts of England are generally ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains; though a diſcerning palate may perceive that they frequently contain ſome mineral impregnation. In ſome very high lands, the inhabitants are diſtreſſed for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions of the Engliſh, and the diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery and preſervation of their health; ſo that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt celebrated are the hot-baths of Bath and Briſtol in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyſhire: the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is uſed as commonly as any other for medical purpoſes: and ſo delicate are the tones of the Engliſh fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the ſea-water of one coaſt and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AND MOUNTAINS. The induſtry of the Engliſh is ſuch, as to ſupply the abſence of thoſe favours which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climates, and in many reſpects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently ſwelling, and both of them forming the moſt luxuriant proſpects, the corn and meadow grounds, the intermixtures of incloſures and plantation, the noble ſeats, comfortable houſes, cheerful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by deſcription. The moſt barren ſpots are not without their verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the Engliſh induſtry, than obſerving that ſome of the pleaſanteſt counties in the kingdom are naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be ſafely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its proſpects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful riſing grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains. The moſt noted are

the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Cotſwould in Glouceſterſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales. In general, however, Wales and the northern parts may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty as well as its opulence. The Thames riſes on the confines of Glouceſterſhire, a little S. W. of Cirenceſter; and, after receiving the many tributary ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windſor. From thence to Kingſton, where formerly it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſtminſter-bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and, after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London-bridge. It was formerly a reproach to England among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton being the only two it had, from the Nore to the laſt-mentioned place, for many ages. This inconvenience was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone-bridges, but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is now multiplying bridges; and the world cannot parallel, for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter and Black Friars. Batterſea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton, and Hampton-court, have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides.

The river Medway, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in North-Wales; becomes navigable at Welſh-Pool; runs eaſt to Shrewſbury: then, turning ſouth, viſits Bridgnorth, Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury; where it receives the Upper Avon; after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction; is, near its mouth, increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol Channel, near King-road, where lie the great ſhips which cannot get up to Briſtol. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and, running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts; then, turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnſhire, and, being joined by the Ouſe and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England are the Ouſe (a Gaëlic word ſignifying *water* in general) which falls into the Humber, after receiving the waters of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from weſt to eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth, below Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from weſt to eaſt, on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German ſea at Berwick. The Eden runs from ſouth to north through Weſtmorland and Cumberland, and, paſſing by Carliſle, falls into Solway-Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through

Wiltſhire to Bath, and then, dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and, paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below. The Ribble runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and, paſſing by Preſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey runs from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then, dividing Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that town; and the Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh channel below Cheſter.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from hiſtory and antiquity, and indeed, in ſome places, from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining are Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſey mere, in the iſle of Ely, in Cambridgeſhire. All theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Weſtmorland, and ſome ſmall lakes in Lancaſhire go by the name of Derwent waters.

Forests.] The firſt Norman kings of England, partly for political purpoſes, that they might the more effectually enſlave their new ſubjects, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immenſe tracts of grounds into foreſts for hunting: and theſe were governed by laws peculiar to themſelves, ſo that it was neceſſary, about the time of paſſing the Magna-Charta, to form a code of the foreſt-laws; and Juſtices in Eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appointed to ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe vaſt tracts were diſforeſted: and the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are thoſe of Windſor, New-Foreſt, the Foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Foreſt. Theſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not foreſts, of cheſnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpoſes of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain ſtill freſh and undecayed, though ſome of them are above 600 years old.

Metals and minerals.] Among the minerals, the tin-mines of Cornwall deſervedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before the Chriſtian æra; and ſince the Engliſh have found a method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, they are of immenſe benefit to the nation. An ore called mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded, till, above 70 years ago, ſir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it; and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners is ſaid to amount to 160,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, and the Engliſh lead is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh-coined ſilver is particularly known by roſes, and that of Wales by the prince's cap of feathers. Devonſhire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the beſt kind, which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſively hard to work. Quarries of freeſtone are found in many places. North-

umberland and Cheſhire yield alum and ſalt-pits. The Engliſh fuller's earth is of ſuch conſequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under ſevere penalties. Pit and ſea-coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nurſery of ſeamen, is chiefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the biſhopric of Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is very conſiderable. The mines of Northumberland alone ſend every year upwards of 600,000 chaldron of coals to London; and 1500 veſſels are employed in carrying them to that harbour along the eaſtern coaſt of England.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. This is ſo copious a ſubject, and ſuch improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, ever ſince the beſt printed accounts we have ſeen, that much muſt be left to the reader's own obſervation and experience. The corn trade of England has already been noticed; but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain, growing in the kingdom. Excellent inſtitutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England; and their members are ſo public-ſpirited as to print periodical accounts of their diſcoveries and experiments, which ſerve to ſhow that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher ſtate of perfection than they are in at preſent. The publications of the Bath Society upon the ſubject of agriculture are well known; and ſuch has been the attention of the nation to this important object, that his preſent majeſty has been pleaſed, Auguſt 31, 1793, by letters patent under the great ſeal, to conſtitute a board for the encouragement of agriculture and internal improvement. The proper cultivation of the ſoil is an object ſo peculiarly intereſting to the community at large, that thoſe who moſt aſſiduouſly attend to it are perhaps to be accounted the moſt meritorious citizens of their country.

Honey and ſaffron are natives of England. It is almoſt needleſs to mention, to the moſt uninformed reader, in what plenty the moſt excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooſeberries, raſpberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here; and what quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in ſome counties. The cyder of Devon and Herefordſhire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention thoſe improvements, did we not obſerve the natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, ſometimes by ſimple culture, but often by hot-beds and other means of forcing nature. The Engliſh pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The ſame may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, Perſia, and Turkey. The Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to the taſte; but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine: and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raiſed here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſallads, in perfection; ſuch as artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, cabbages, coleworts, broccoli, peas, beans, kidney-beans, ſpinach, beets, lettuce, celery, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, muſhrooms, leeks, onions, and ſhallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing, however, have the Engliſh been more ſucceſsful than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil,

ſaintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating graſſes for the ſoil. It belongs to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which are now become a very conſiderable article of trade.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, I ſhall begin with the quadrupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat; but ſome prefer for the table the ſmaller breed of the Scotch and Welch cattle, after grazing in Engliſh paſtures. The Engliſh horſes are the beſt in the world, whether we regard their ſpirit, ſtrength, ſwiftneſs, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal; and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Perſian, Arabian, Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of the Engliſh cavalry render them ſuperior to all others in war: and an Engliſh hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or ſtag-chaſe. Thoſe which draw carriages in the ſtreets of London are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horſes has of late become a conſiderable article of commerce. The breed of aſſes and mules begins likewiſe to be improved and encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are of two kinds: thoſe that are valuable for their fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of England. In ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams as in thoſe of their horſes and dogs; and in Lincolnſhire, particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of theſe animals to ſell for 50l. It muſt, however, be owned, that thoſe large fat ſheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England twelve millions of fleeces are ſhorn annually, which, at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000l. The other kind of ſheep which are fed upon the Downs, ſuch as thoſe of Banſtead, Bagſhot heath, and Devonſhire, where they have what the farmers call the ſhort bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and ſweetneſs to veniſon.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bull-dogs are ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt of the canine ſpecies in the world; but either from the change of ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two Engliſh bull-dogs upon one of the fierceſt lions in the Tower, and they ſoon conquered him. The maſtiff, however, has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the different ſpecies of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England.

What has been obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs in foreign countries is applicable to the Engliſh game-cocks, which afford much barbarous diverſion to our ſportſmen. The courage of theſe birds is aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal are likewiſe extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are much the ſame in England as in other countries; turkeys, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets, and capons, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſtards, wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, grouſe, quail, landrail, ſnipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jack-

daws and jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmall birds; canary birds alſo breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea-fiſh. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barbel, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fiſh, beſides a delicate lake-fiſh called char, which is found in ſome freſh-water lakes of Wales and Cumberland and, as ſome ſay, no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchard, ſkaite, ſoles. The john-dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fiſh are found on the ſame coaſt. As to ſhell-fiſh, they are chiefly oyſters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, ſhrimps, and eſcallops, one of the moſt delicious of ſhell-fiſhes, cockles, wilks, perriwinkles, and muſcles, with many other ſmall ſhell-fiſh, abound in the Engliſh Sea. The whales chiefly viſit the northern coaſt; but great numbers of porpoiſes and ſeals appear in the channel.

With regard to reptiles, ſuch as adders, vipers, ſnakes, and worms; and inſects, ſuch as ants, gnats, waſps, and flies, England nearly reſembles the reſt of Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural hiſtory than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The exemption of the Engliſh conſtitution from the deſpotic powers exerciſed in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reaſon why it is very difficult to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England; and yet it is certain that this might occaſionally be done, by parliament, without any violation of public liberty, and probably ſoon will take place. With regard to political calculations, they muſt be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners who ſettle in the nation, the emigrations of inhabitants to America and the iſlands, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in ſhipping, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, it ſeems probable that England is more populous than the eſtimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain, before the American, annually employed about 200,000 Engliſhmen, excluſive of Scotch and Iriſh, by ſea and land; and its progreſs carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed ſenſibly felt, but not ſo much as it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the ſea and land ſervice.

At the ſame time, it is not probable that England is at preſent naturally more populous than ſhe was in the reign of Charles I. though ſhe is accidentally ſo. The Engliſh of former ages were ſtrangers to that exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other modes of living, that are deſtructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities of cultivated lands in England, ſince thoſe times, it might reaſonably be preſumed, would be favourable to mankind; but this advantage is perhaps more than counterbalanced by the prevailing practice of engroſſing farms, which is certainly unfavourable to population; and, independent of this, upon an average, perhaps a married couple has not ſuch a numerous progeny now as formerly. I will take the liberty to make another obſervation, which falls within the cogniſance of almoſt

every man, and that is the incredible increaſe of foreign names upon our pariſh books and public liſts, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

After what has been premiſed, it would be preſumptuous to pretend to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales: but, in my own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than 7,000,000.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well-ſized, regularly featured, commonly fair, rather than otherwiſe, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be preſumed, that the vaſt number of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions, different from thoſe of their anceſtors 150 years ago. The women, in their ſhape, features, and complexion, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beſide the external graces ſo peculiar to the women in England, they are ſtill more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a tender affection for their huſbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domeſtic life.

Of all the people in the world, the Engliſh keep themſelves the moſt cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination; inſomuch that, before the practice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathſome diſeaſe by its true name in any polite company. This over-ſenſibility has been conſidered as one of the ſources of thoſe ſingularities which ſo ſtrongly characteriſe the Engliſh nation. They ſometimes magnify the ſlighteſt appearances into realities, and bring the moſt diſtant dangers immediately home to themſelves; and yet, when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater reſolution or conſtancy of mind. They are fond of clubs and convivial aſſociations; and when theſe are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the beſt cure for thoſe mental evils, which are ſo peculiar to the Engliſh, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The ſame obſervations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which muſt be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change ſince the acceſſion of the Houſe of Hanover, eſpecially of late years. The Engliſh nobility and gentry of great fortunes now aſſimilate their manners to thoſe of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourſe than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they viſit, under the tuition perhaps of a deſpicable pedant, or family dependant; but they travel for the purpoſes of ſociety, and at the more advanced ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their paſſions regulated. This has enlarged ſociety in England, which foreigners now viſit as commonly as Engliſhmen viſited them, and the effects of the intercourſe become daily more viſible, eſpecially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one ſex.

Such of the Engliſh noblemen and gentlemen as do not ſtrike into thoſe high walks of life, affect what we call a ſnug rather than a ſplendid way of living. They ſtudy and underſtand, better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houſes, gardens, equipages, and eſtates; and they ſpare no coſt to purchaſe it. It has however been obſerved, that this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ought to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form are ſincere, cheerful, and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend pretty far

into the lower ranks, and are often diſcernible among tradeſmen. This love of ſnugneſs and conveniency may be called the ruling paſſion of the Engliſh people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues. A good economiſt, with a briſk run of trade, is generally, when turned of fifty, in a condition to retire from buſineſs; that is, either to purchaſe an eſtate, or ſettle his money in the funds. He then commonly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his ſtyle of living is always judiciouſly ſuited to his circumſtances.

The humanity of the Engliſh is diſcovered in nothing more than in the large ſubſcriptions for public charities, raiſed by all degrees of both ſexes. An Engliſhman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature ſuffers; and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with the greateſt liberality. The very perſons who contribute to thoſe collections are at the ſame time aſſeſſed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; and upwards of three millions ſterling is ſaid to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purpoſes. The inſtitutions, however, of extra-parochial infirmaries, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes reprehenſible. The vaſt ſums beſtowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of phyſicians, who thereby, qualified or unqualified, acquire credit, which is the ſame as profit, very often beget heats and cabals, which are very different from the purpoſes of diſintereſted charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepoſſeſſions of friends, and too often even to party conſiderations.

The Engliſh liſten to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deſerved or accidental, and generouſly contribute to the relief of the parties, ſometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever. The loweſt-bred of the Engliſh are capable of theſe and the like generous actions: but they often make an oſtentatious diſplay of their own merits, which diminiſhes their value. There is, among the generality of the Engliſh of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above moſt other conſiderations. Riches, both in public and private, are often thought to compenſate for the abſence of almoſt every good quality. This offenſive failing ariſes partly from the people being ſo much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their conſtitution, which makes the poſſeſſion of property a qualification for the legiſlature, and for almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy, government, honours, and diſtinctions.

An Engliſhman of education and reading is the moſt accompliſhed gentleman in the world: he is, however, ſhy and reſerved in his communications. This unamiable coldneſs is ſo far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural conſtitution. Living learning and genius often meet not with their ſuitable regard, even from the firſt-rate Engliſhmen; and it is not unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the ſtate diſtinction of Whig and Tory ſubſiſted, the heads of each party affected to patroniſe men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate; and the very few who met with preferments in the ſtate might have earned them by a competent knowledge of buſineſs, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally poſſeſs. We ſcarcely have an in-

ſtance, even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predeceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius, as ſuch, being made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 300l. a year of the public money to aſſiſt him in his travels; and Mr. Pope, though a Roman-catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like penſion from Mr. Craggs, the whig ſecretary of ſtate; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion, the earl of Oxford, when ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papiſt. Indeed, a few men of diſtinguiſhed literary abilities, as well as ſome without, have of late received penſions from the crown; but, from the conduct of ſome of them, it ſhould ſeem that ſtate and party ſervices have been expected in return.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remarkable: ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſometimes it is ſolid, ingenious, and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon diſguſt; and all in the ſame perſon. In many of their convivial meetings they are very noiſy, and their wit is often offenſive, while the loudeſt are the moſt applauded. This is particularly apt to be the caſe in large companies; but, in ſmaller and more ſelect parties, all the pleaſures of rational converſation and agreeable ſociety are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that ſeems to be congenial to the Engliſh nation. Boys, before they can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fiſts; a quality that, perhaps, is peculiar to the Engliſh, and is ſeconded by a ſtrength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the Engliſh ſoldier an infinite ſuperiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet ſcrewed upon the muſket. The Engliſh courage has likewiſe the property, under able commanders, of being equally paſſive as active. Their ſoldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger; but when they deliver it, it has a moſt dreaful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others; and in the mechanical arts they excel all nations in the world. The intenſe application which an Engliſhman gives to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, and, as it were, abſorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſence that are to be found in the nation.

All that has been ſaid concerning the Engliſh is to be underſtood of them in general, as they are at preſent; for it is not to be diſſembled, that every day produces ſtrong indications of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and, above all, the amazing increaſe of territorial as well as commercial property in the Eaſt Indies, introduced a ſpecies of people among the Engliſh, who have become rich without induſtry, and, by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver, have created a new ſyſtem of finances in the nation. Time alone can ſhow the event; hitherto the conſequence ſeems to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a ſpirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal or ſurpaſs the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of buſineſs, which prevailed ſo lately as the acceſſion of the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs extravagance of dreſs and equipage, and the moſt expenſive amuſements

and diverſions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the cuſtoms of the Engliſh have, ſince the beginning of this century, undergone an almoſt total alteration. Their ancient hoſpitality ſubſiſts but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occaſions. Many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; but concerts of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies, are common all over the kingdom. Stag and fox-hunting, and horſe-races, of which many of the Engliſh are fond, even to infatuation, have already been mentioned. Somewhat, however, may be offered by way of apology for thoſe diverſions: the intenſe application which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exerciſe; and ſome think that their excellent breed of horſes is increaſed and improved by thoſe amuſements. The Engliſh are remarkably cool, both in loſing and winning at play; but the former is ſometimes attended with acts of ſuicide. An Engliſhman will rather murder himſelf, than bring a ſharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign puniſhment, even though warranted by law. Next to horſe-racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diverſion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both claſſes aſſemble round the pit at one of thoſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of this generous animal; every ſpectator being concerned in a bet, ſometimes of high ſums. The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept up in the ſouthern and weſtern parts of England, and is ſometimes practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. Many other paſtimes are common in England, ſome of them of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling, wreſtling, bowls, ſkittles, quoits, and priſon-baſe; not to mention duck-hunting, foot and aſs-races, dancing, puppet-ſhows, May-garlands, and, above all, ringing of bells, a ſpecies of muſic which the Engliſh boaſt they have brought into an art. The barbarous diverſions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the ſhows of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practiſed; and all places of public diverſion, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diverſions, which are common in other countries, ſuch as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling, fowling, courſing, and the like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds, and thoſe highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them; and theſe are rowing and ſailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patroniſed and encouraged by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national improvement. The Engliſh are amazingly fond of ſkating, in which, however, they are not very expert; but they are adventurous in it, often to the danger and loſs of their lives. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion, though without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich; for the farmer and country people deſtroy the game in their neſts, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a people as the Engliſh, has been conſidered in various lights.

Dress.] In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George III. they followed the French; but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs, and richneſs of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both ſexes, appear, on high occaſions, in cloth

of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſatins, ſilks, and velvets, both flowered and plain: and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all theſe are diſcouraged. Some of theſe rich ſtuffs are ſaid to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies. The ſame nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions, dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth and beſt of linen. The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſcarf, beaver-hat and roſe, all of black; his undreſs is a dark-grey frock, and plain linen. The phyſicians, the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large tie-perukes, and ſwords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, begin now to dreſs like other gentlemen and men of buſineſs. Few Engliſhmen, tradeſmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field; on which occaſions, they dreſs with remarkable propriety in a light frock, narrow-brimmed hat, &c. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but ſince the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, the dreſſes at court, on particular occaſions, are ſuperb beyond deſcription. Few, even of the loweſt tradeſmen, on Sundays, carry about them leſs than 10l. in cloathing, comprehending hat, wig, ſtockings, ſhoes, and linen; and even many beggars in the ſtreets appear decent in their dreſs. In ſhort, none but the moſt abandoned of both ſexes are otherwiſe; and the appearance of an artiſan or manufacturer, in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his induſtry and morals.

Religion.] Euſebius, and other ancient writers, poſitively aſſert, that Chriſtianity was firſt preached in South Britain by the apoſtles and their diſciples; and it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe that the ſucceſs of the Romans opened a way for the triumphs of the goſpel of peace. It is certain alſo, that many of the ſoldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Chriſtians; and as their legions were repeatedly ſent over to England to extend as well as preſerve their conqueſts, it is probable that thus Chriſtianity was diffuſed among the natives. If any of the apoſtles viſited this country and our heathen anceſtors, it was St. Paul, whoſe zeal, diligence, and fortitude, were abundant. But who was the firſt preacher, or when the preciſe year and period, the want of records leaves us at a loſs; and all the traditions about Joſeph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the goſpel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes ſuffering martyrdom here, are romantic fables, and monkiſh legends. We have good authority to ſay, that, about the year 150, a great number of perſons profeſſed the Chriſtian faith here: and, according to archbiſhop Uſher, in the year 182, there was a ſchool of learning to provide the Britiſh churches with proper teachers; and from that period it ſeems as if Chriſtianity advanced its benign and ſalutary influences among the inhabitants in their ſeveral diſtricts. It is unneceſſary to repeat what has been ſaid in the introduction reſpecting the riſe and fall of the church of Rome in Europe; we ſhall only obſerve in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion, and boldly refuted, thoſe doctrines which had paſſed for certain during ſo many ages. The conſtitution of the church is epiſcopal, and it is governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefices

of the inferior clergy are now freehold; but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The economy of the church of England has been accuſed for the inequality of its livings; ſome of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too ſmall to maintain a clergyman, eſpecially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this ſeems not eaſily to be remedied, unleſs the dignified clergy would adopt and ſupport the reforming ſcheme. The crown, as well as private perſons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, ſuch as deans, prebendaries, and the like, have generally large incomes, ſome of them exceeding in value thoſe of biſhoprics; for which reaſon the revenues of a rich deanery, or other living, are often annexed to a poor biſhopric. At preſent, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a moſt flouriſhing ſituation, becauſe the value of their tithes increaſes with the improvements of lands, which of late have been amazing in England. The ſovereigns of England, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. have been called, in public writs, the ſupreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no ſpiritual meaning; as it only denotes the regal power to prevent any eccleſiaſtical differences, or, in other words, to ſubſtitute the king in place of the pope before the reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal economy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in eccleſiaſtical diſputes, unleſs by preventing the convocation from ſitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a ſanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this deſcription of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbiſhops, and twenty-four biſhops, beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who, not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe of peers*. The two archbiſhops are thoſe of Canterbury and York, who are dignified with the addreſs of Your Grace. The former is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. He is enabled to hold eccleſiaſtical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cogniſable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the

* To the following liſt I have ſubjoined the ſum each ſee is charged in the king's books; for though that ſum is far from being the real annual value of the ſee, yet it aſſiſts in forming a comparative eſtimate between the revenues of each ſee and thoſe of another.

## ARCHBISHOPRICS.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Canterbury, | £. | 2682 | 12 | 2 | York, | £. | 1610 | 0 | 0 |

## BISHOPRICS.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| London, | 2000 | 0 | 0 | Chicheſter, | 677 | 1 | 3 |
| Durham, | 1821 | 1 | 3 | St. Aſaph, | 187 | 11 | 8 |
| Wincheſter, | 3124 | 12 | 8 | Saliſbury, | 1385 | 5 | 0 |
| Theſe three biſhoprics take precedency of all others in England; and the others according to the ſeniority of their conſecrations. | | | | Bangor, | 131 | 16 | 3 |
| | | | | Norwich, | 834 | 11 | 7 |
| | | | | Glouceſter, | 315 | 7 | 3 |
| | | | | Lincoln, | 894 | 18 | 1 |
| Ely, | 2134 | 18 | 6 | Landaff, | 154 | 14 | 2 |
| Bath and Wells, | 533 | 1 | 3 | Briſtol, | 294 | 11 | 0 |
| Hereford, | 768 | 11 | 0 | Carliſle, | 531 | 4 | 9 |
| Rocheſter, | 358 | 4 | 0 | Exeter, | 500 | 0 | 0 |
| Litchfield and Coventry, | 559 | 17 | 3 | Peterborough, | 414 | 17 | 8 |
| Cheſter, | 420 | 1 | 8 | Oxford, | 381 | 11 | 9 |
| Worceſter, | 929 | 13 | 3 | St. David's, | 426 | 2 | 1 |

king's prerogative. He has the privilege conſequently of granting, in certain caſes, licences and diſpenſations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Wincheſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury has, by the conſtitution and laws of England, ſuch extenſive powers, that, ever ſince the death of archbiſhop Laud (whoſe character will be hereafter given), the government of England has prudently thought proper to raiſe to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of conſiderable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and conſequently of the ſtate.

The archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, beſides his own dioceſe, the biſhopries of Durham, Carliſle, Cheſter, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops are addreſſed by the appellation of Your Lordſhip, ſtyled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have all the privileges of peers; and the biſhopries of London, Wincheſter, Durham, Saliſbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to ſupport their prelates in the rank of noblemen. Engliſh biſhops are to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. Their juriſdiction relates to the probation of wills; to grant adminiſtration of goods to ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſhable goods when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to viſit their own dioceſes once in three years.

Deans and prebendaries of cathedrals have been already mentioned: but it would perhaps be difficult to aſſign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worſhip, and to make proviſion for clergymen of eminence and merit; but intereſt often prevails over merit in the appointment. England contains about ſixty archdeacons, whoſe office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year; but their offices are leſs lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly ſtyled arch-preſbyters, who ſignify the biſhop's pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of prieſts and deacons.

The eccleſiaſtical government of England is, properly ſpeaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national repreſentative or ſynod, and anſwers pretty nearly to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the ſame time with every parliament; and their buſineſs is to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to call thoſe to an account who have advanced new opinions inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some clergymen of an intolerant and perſecuting ſpirit during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raiſed the power of the convocation to a height that was inconſiſtent with the principles of religious toleration, and indeed of civil liberty; ſo that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of diſſolving them; and, ever ſince, they have not been permitted to ſit for any time in which they could do buſineſs.

The court of arches is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canterbury; and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The proceſſes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates who plead in this court muſt be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the ſame authority with this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and adminiſtration taken out. The courts of peculiars, relating to certain pariſhes, have a juriſdiction among themſelves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the biſhop's courts. The ſee of Canterbury has no leſs than fifteen of theſe peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court. Every biſhop has alſo a court of his own, called the conſiſtory court. Every archdeacon has likewiſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now, beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character; and in England no religious ſect is prevented from worſhipping God in that manner which their conſciences approve. Some ſevere laws were, indeed, lately in force againſt thoſe proteſtant diſſenters who did not aſſent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but theſe laws were not executed; and, in 1779, religious liberty received a conſiderable augmentation, by an act which was then paſſed for granting a legal toleration to diſſenting miniſters and ſchoolmaſters, without their ſubſcribing any of the Articles of the church of England. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain that epiſcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the reſtoration of his ſon, has ever ſince prevailed in England. The wiſdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conſpicuous, in diſcouraging all religious perſecution and intolerancy; and if religious ſectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the ſame principle that civil licentiouſneſs has prevailed; that is, a tenderneſs in matters that can affect either conſcience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery in the reign of Henry VIII. and his ſon, and even ſo late as that of Elizabeth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the civil power for a farther reformation. Thence aroſe the *puritans*, ſo called from their maintaining a ſingular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and ſome of them good patriots. Their deſcendants are the modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological ſentiments have undergone a conſiderable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan inſtituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of epiſcopacy, and to veſting the government of the church in a parity of preſbyters. But the modern Engliſh preſbyterians, in their ideas of church government, differ very little from the independents, or congregationaliſts, who are ſo called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any reſpect to doctrine; and, in this ſenſe, almoſt all the *diſſenters* in England are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the preſbyterians are generally Armenians. Many of their miniſters have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning and abilities; and ſome of their writings are held in high eſtimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the eſtabliſhed church. The ſame may be ſaid of ſome of the independent and baptiſt miniſters. The independents are generally Calviniſts. The baptiſts do not believe that

infants are proper ſubjects of baptiſm; and in the baptiſm of adults they practiſe immerſion into water. They are divided into two claſſes, which are ſtyled general baptiſts, and particular baptiſts. The general baptiſts are Armenians, and the particular baptiſts are Calviniſts. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the proteſtant diſſenters with affection and friendſhip: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of biſhops, are capital points in their religion, they conſider their differences with the preſbyterians, and even with the baptiſts, as not being very material to ſalvation; nor indeed do many of the eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the Thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all ſubſcriptions to religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines, which were formerly generally conſidered as too ſacred to be oppoſed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worſhip have been eſtabliſhed, in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and ſeveral clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and aſſigned their diſbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *Methodiſts* are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect. They pretend to great fervour and devotion: and their founder thought that the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers, whether taken from a common-prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference: he accordingly made uſe of both theſe methods. His followers are rigid obſervers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profeſs themſelves to be Calviniſts. But the ſect of methodiſts is ſplit among themſelves, ſome of them acknowledging Mr. Whitfield, and others Mr. Weſley, for their leader. Mr. Whitfield died in the year 1770; but the places of worſhip, erected by him near London, are ſtill frequented by perſons of the ſame principles, and they profeſs a great reſpect for his memory. Some of the Calviniſtic doctrines were oppoſed by Mr. Weſley and his followers, particularly that of predeſtination. He erected a very large place of public worſhip near Moorfields, and had under him a conſiderable number of ſubordinate preachers, who ſubmitted to their leader very implicitly, propagate his opinions, and make proſelytes throughout the kingdom with great induſtry. After a very long life, ſpent in the moſt ſtrenuous endeavours to do good, and having been bleſt in reforming the morals of thouſands of the lower ranks of ſociety, he died in 1791. There are alſo a alſo a variety of ſubordinate ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians)* who have their ſeparate followers, but very few at London and other places in England.

The *Quakers* are a religious ſect which took its riſe about the middle of the laſt century. A ſummary account of their tenets having been publiſhed by themſelves, the following is abſtracted from it.

"They believe in one eternal God, the Creator and preſerver of the univerſe, and in Jeſus Chriſt his Son, the Meſſiah and Mediator of the new covenant.

"When they ſpeak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, reſurrection, and aſcenſion of our Saviour, they uſe Scriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

"To Chriſt alone they give the title of the Word of God, and not to

the ſcriptures, although they highly eſteem theſe ſacred writings, in ſubordination to the ſpirit from which they were given forth.

"They believe (and it is their diſtinguiſhing tenet), that every man coming into the world is endued with a meaſure of the light, grace, or good ſpirit of Chriſt, by which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to diſtinguiſh good from evil, and to correct the corrupt propenſities of his nature, which mere reaſon is altogether inſufficient to overcome.

"They think the influence of the Spirit eſpecially neceſſary to the performance of worſhip; and conſider as obſtructions to pure worſhip, all forms which divert the attention of the mind from the ſecret influence of this unction from the Holy One. They think it incumbent on Chriſtians to meet often together, and to wait in ſilence to have a true ſight of their condition beſtowed upon them; believing even a ſingle ſigh ariſing from ſuch a ſenſe to be more acceptable to God than any performances, however ſpecious, which originate in the will of man.

"As they do not encourage any miniſtry but that which is believed to ſpring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, ſo neither do they reſtrain this influence to perſons of any condition in life, or to the male ſex alone; but as male and female are one in Chriſt, they allow ſuch of the female ſex as are endued with a right qualification for the miniſtry, to exerciſe their gifts for the general edification of the church.

"Reſpecting baptiſm, and what is termed the Lord's ſupper, they believe that the baptiſm with water, adminiſtered by John, belonged to an inferior and decreaſing diſpenſation.

"With reſpect to the other rite, they believe that communion between Chriſt and his church is not maintained by any external performance; but only by a real participation of his divine nature by faith.

"They declare againſt oaths and war; abiding literally by Chriſt's poſitive injunction, "Swear not at all." From the precepts of the goſpel, from the example of our Lord, and from his ſpirit in their hearts, they maintain that wars and fightings are repugnant to the goſpel.

"They diſuſe the names of the months and days which were given in honour of the heroes or falſe gods of the heathens; and the cuſtom of ſpeaking to a ſingle perſon in the plural number, as having ariſen alſo from motives of adulation. Compliments, ſuperfluity of apparel and furniture, outward ſhows of rejoicing and mourning, and obſervations of days and times, they eſteem to be incompatible with the ſimplicity and ſincerity of a Chriſtian life; and public diverſions, gaming, and other vain amuſements of the world, they condemn as a waſte of time, and diverting the attention of the mind from the ſober duties of life.

"This ſociety hath a diſcipline eſtabliſhed among them, the purpoſes of which are the relief of the poor—the maintenance of good order—the ſupport of the teſtimonies which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world and the help and recovery of ſuch as are overtaken in faults.

"It is their decided judgment that it is contrary to the goſpel to ſue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by ſpeedy and impartial arbitration according to rules laid down. If any refuſe to adopt this mode, or, having adopted it, to ſubmit to the award, it is the rule of the ſociety that ſuch be diſowned."

It is well known that William Penn, one of this ſociety, founded the province of Pennſylvania, and introduced therein a plan of civil and religious liberty, particularly of the latter, at that time unexampled. The government of the province was at firſt, and for many years, chiefly in the hands of the quakers; but as perſons of other perſuaſions

increaſed, and became partakers of power, they grew uneaſy at the pacific plan of the quakers, and at length ſucceeding to eſtabliſh ſuch modes of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles of the latter, theſe gradually withdrew themſelves from active employments of the ſtate. For ſome time previous to the late revolution, few of them were found in any other ſtation than that of private citizens; and, during its progreſs, their refuſing to arm expoſed them to much ſuffering, by diſtraints levied on them, in order to procure their quota in ſupport of the war.

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religion, and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Though the penal laws againſt papiſts in England appear at firſt to be ſevere, yet they are either not executed, or with ſo much lenity, that the Roman catholic feels himſelf under few hardſhips. Legal evaſions are found out for the double taxes upon their landed property; and as they are ſubject to none of the expenſes and troubles (unleſs voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burthens, the Engliſh papiſts are in general in good circumſtances as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws againſt them have alſo lately been repealed, much to the ſatisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raiſed againſt the meaſure by ignorance and bigotry. The papiſts now ſeem to be convinced that a change of government, inſtead of bettering, would hurt their ſituation, becauſe it would increaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlature, which muſt undoubtedly expoſe them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties. This ſenſible conſideration has of late made the Roman catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any his majeſty has. Scarcely any Engliſh papiſts, excepting thoſe who were bred or had ſerved abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745; and though thoſe at home were moſt carefully obſerved, few, or none of them, were found guilty of diſloyal practices.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious ſects, ſo it has alſo for its *Free-thinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different ſenſes. It has ſometimes been uſed to denote oppoſers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has alſo been applied to thoſe who have been far from diſbelieving Chriſtianity, and who have only oppoſed ſome of thoſe doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceive to be no part of the original Chriſtian ſyſtem. As to thoſe who are truly *deiſts* or *infidels*, there is abundant reaſon to believe that this claſs of men is much more numerous in ſome popiſh countries than in England. Chriſtianity is ſo much obſcured and diſfigured by the fopperies and ſuperſtitions of the Roman church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced againſt it, when they ſee it in ſo diſadvantageous a form; and this appears to be in fact very much the caſe abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of ſeeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have leſs cauſe to be prejudiced againſt it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appear that the writings of the deiſts againſt Chriſtianity have been of any real diſſervice to it. On the contrary, they have cauſed the arguments in its favour to be uſed with greater force and clearneſs, and have been the means of producing ſuch defences of it, as all the acuteneſs of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

LANGUAGE.] The Engliſh language is known to be a compound

of almoſt every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates; and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To deſcribe it abſtractedly, would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader; but, relatively, it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expreſſive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is, however, ſubject to ſome conſiderable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the loweſt of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred perſons, there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both ſexes, alſo commonly either ſpeak or underſtand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spaniſh: but it has been obſerved that foreign nations have great difficulty in underſtanding the few Engliſh who talk Latin; which is perhaps the reaſon why that language is much diffuſed in England, even by the learned profeſſions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the ſeat of learning and the Muſes. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe; nor has there, ſince his time, been wanting a continual ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The Engliſh inſtitutions for the benefit of ſtudy partake of the character of their learning. They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide for the eaſe, the diſencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its profeſſors; witneſs, the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge; inſtitutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were reſpected even amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The induſtrious Leland, who was himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who publiſhed a ſhort collection of the lives and characters of thoſe learned perſons who preceded the reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood-royal of both ſexes, particularly a ſon and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the Confeſſor, and other Saxon princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted to Mars and to the Muſes.

In ſpeaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable to omit the mention of that prodigy of learning and natural philoſophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in ſcience to the great Bacon, lord Verulam, as the latter was to ſir Iſaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illuſtrious man, we find treatiſes upon grammar, mathematics, phyſics, the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, optics, geography, aſtronomy, chronology, chemiſtry, logic, metaphyſics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294. The honourable Mr. Walpole (the late lord Orford) has preſerved the memory of ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muſes; and to his work we muſt refer. Since the Reformation, England reſembles a galaxy of literature*; and

* See the Biographia Britannica.

it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though otherwiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of claſſical learning in England. As many of the Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life, greatly encouraged theſe foreigners, and ſhowed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt uſeful parts of learning, had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England, during the bloody bigoted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth, her ſiſter, was herſelf a learned princeſs. She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and ſtate; but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their literary accompliſhments to have been only ſecondary to their civil. In this ſhe ſhowed herſelf a great politician; but ſhe would have been a more amiable queen, had ſhe raiſed genius from obſcurity: for though ſhe was no ſtranger to Spencer's Muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo much impoſed upon by a taſteleſs miniſter, that the poet languiſhed and died in obſcurity. Though ſhe reliſhed the beauties of the divine Shakſpeare, yet we know not that he was diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favourite the earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and other foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He was himſelf no great author; but his example had a conſiderable effect upon his ſubjects; for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. Nor muſt it be forgotten, that the ſecond Bacon, who has been already mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are to this day ſtandards in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that Engliſh learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he had a very pedantic taſte himſelf, he was the means of diffuſing a ſimilar taſte among his ſubjects.

His ſon Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts; ſo that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a ſecond Athens; and the collections he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid out the amazing ſum of 400,000 pounds upon his cabinet of paintings and curioſities.

The earl of Arundel was another Mæcenas of that age, and greatly diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his collection of antiquities, particularly his famous marble inſcriptions, called the Arundelian marbles now preſerved at Oxford. Charles and his court had little or no reliſh for poetry; but ſuch was his generoſity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Jonſon, from 100 marks to 100 pounds per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh wine; which ſalary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts ſuffered indeed

an eclipſe, during the time of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding interregnum. Many very learned men, however, found their ſituations under Cromwell, though he was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments, ſo eaſy, that they followed their ſtudies, to the vaſt benefit of every branch of learning: and many works of great literary merit appeared even in thoſe times of diſtraction. Uſher, Walton, Willis, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmoleſted and even favoured by that uſurper; and he would alſo have filled the univerſities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of ſafety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of thoſe ſtudies; and, though irreligious himſelf, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt, by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit, though it was far from being diſregarded ſo much as has been commonly apprehended. The reign of Charles II., notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his court in ſeveral of the polite arts, by ſome is reckoned the Auguſtan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit aſſumed more majeſty, a better ſtyle, and truer energy, than it had ever known before. Claſſic literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not, under him, boaſt of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet ſir Chriſtopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than had ever been known before in architecture. Nor was ſir Chriſtopher Wren merely diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill as an architect*. His knowledge was very extenſive; and his diſcoveries in philoſophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the new-eſtabliſhed Royal Society. Some excellent Engliſh painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) alſo flouriſhed in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is chiefly diſtinguiſhed in the province of literature by thoſe compoſitions that were publiſhed by the Engliſh divines againſt popery, and which, for ſtrength of reaſoning and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular eſteem for the latter, as he had alſo for Tillotſon and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flouriſhed, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the ſoil in which it had been planted.

The moſt uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auſpices of queen Anne, and which put her court at leaſt on a footing

* Mr. Horace Walpole (the late lord Orford) ſays, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the univerſality, a multiplicity of works the abundance, and St. Paul's the greatneſs, of ſir Chriſtopher's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St. Peter's, have not left, upon the whole, a more perfect edifice than this work of a ſingle mind. The nobleſt temple, the largeſt palace, and the moſt ſumptuous hoſpital, in ſuch a kingdom as Britain, are all the works of the ſame hand. He reſtored London, and recorded its fall. He built about fifty pariſh churches, and deſigned the Monument.

with that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the great men who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a new race ſprung up in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers both in verſe and proſe, need but to be mentioned, to be admired; and the Engliſh were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts; and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and valuable knowledge.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and ſome of them were no mean proficients themſelves. George II. was himſelf no Mæcenas: yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prelates as it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobility and miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the coldneſs of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was conſidered as being firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between government and literature was in a great meaſure removed, and men of genius began to taſte the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progreſs has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been inſtituted, ſome very able artiſts have ariſen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and ſculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. But, notwithſtanding theſe favourable circumſtances, the fine arts have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have ſo juſt a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with ſtatues. The ſculptors meet with little employment, nor is the hiſtorical painter much patroniſed; though the Britiſh artiſts of the preſent age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to that of any other nation.

Beſides learning, and the fine arts in general, the Engliſh excel in what we call the learned profeſſions. Their courts of juſtice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which any other country can boaſt of. A remarkable inſtance of which occurs in the appointments, for the laſt 200 years, of their lord-chancellors, who hold the higheſt and the moſt uncontrolable judicial ſeat in the kingdom: and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that, during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few inſtances that may be alleged to the contrary fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord-chancellor Bacon was cenſured indeed for corrupt practices; but malevolence itſelf does not ſay that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his ſervants. The caſe of one of his ſucceſſors is ſtill more favourable to his memory, as his cenſure reflects diſgrace only upon his enemies; and his lordſhip was, in the judgment of every man of candour and conſcience, fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accuſed of partiality in the cauſes that came before him as chancellor.

It muſt be acknowledged that neither pulpit nor bar eloquence have been ſufficiently ſtudied in England: but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The ſermons of their divines are often learned, and always ſound as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious ſects in England require to be oppoſed rather by reaſoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed even among ſome of the clergy themſelves, that the latter is incompatible with the former; as if the arguments of Cicero and Demoſthenes were weakened by thoſe powers of language with which they are adorned. A ſhort time, perhaps, may remove this prepoſſeſſion, and convince the clergy, as well as the laity, that true eloquence is the firſt and faireſt handmaid of argumentation. We do not, however, mean to inſinuate that the preachers of the Engliſh church are deſtitute of the graces of elocution: ſo far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them in the purity and perſpicuity of language; though, if they ſtudied more than they do the powers of elocution, they would probably preach with more effect. If the ſemblance of thoſe powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthuſiaſts, is attended with the amazing effects we daily ſee, what muſt not be the conſequence if they were exerted in reality, and ſupported with ſpirit and learning?

The laws of England are of ſo peculiar a caſt, that the ſeveral pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very ſparingly, of the flowers of ſpeech; and there is reaſon to think that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would make a ridiculous appearance in Weſtminſter-hall. The Engliſh lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well verſed in rhetoric and reaſoning.

Parliamentary ſpeaking not being confined to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce ſo many examples of true eloquence as the Engliſh ſenate in its two houſes; witneſs the fine ſpeeches made by both parties in parliament in the reign of Charles I. and thoſe that have been printed ſince the acceſſion of the preſent family.

Medicine and ſurgery, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, and all the arts or ſtudies for preſerving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the Engliſh. The ſame may be ſaid of muſic, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechaniſm are now reduced in England to ſciences, and that, too, without any public encouragement but ſuch as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who aſſociate themſelves for that purpoſe. In ſhip-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery, they ſtand unrivalled.

UNIVERSITIES.] We have already mentioned the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the ſeminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and ſome have ventured to ſay, than all other literary inſtitutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in ſplendor and architecture rival the moſt ſuperb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal eaſe and tranquillity enjoyed by thoſe who inhabit them, ſurpaſs all the ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive of literary ſocieties. So reſpectable are they in their foundations, that each univerſity ſends two members to the Britiſh parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil juriſdiction over their ſtudents, the better to ſecure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed thoſe of many other univerſities.

In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the ſtudents chiefly maintain themſelves. This univerſity is of great antiquity: it is ſuppoſed to have

been a conſiderable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden ſays, that "wiſe antiquity did, even in the Britiſh age, conſecrate this place to the Muſes." It is ſaid to have been ſtyled an univerſity before the time of king Alfred; and the beſt hiſtorians admit, that this moſt excellent prince was only a reſtorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philoſophy, and a third for grammar.

The univerſity of Cambridge conſiſts of twelve colleges, and four halls; but though they are diſtinguiſhed by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls are in every reſpect the ſame.

The ſenate-houſe at Cambridge is a moſt elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is ſaid to have coſt ſixteen thouſand pounds. Trinity college library is alſo a very magnificent ſtructure; and in Corpus Chriſti college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuſcripts, which were preſerved at the diſſolution of the monaſteries, and given to this college by archbiſhop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The antiquities of England are either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, Daniſh, or Anglo-Normannic; but theſe, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities are thoſe circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonehenge in Wiltſhire, which probably were places of worſhip in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, deſcribed as a regular circular ſtructure. The body of the work conſiſts of two circles and two ovals, which are thus compoſed: the upright ſtones are placed at three feet and a half diſtance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart ſtones, with tenons fitted to the mortiſes in the uprights, for keeping them in their due poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are vaſtly large, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above ſeven in height; others are leſs in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chiſſel, and ſometimes tapered; but the tranſoms, or over-thwart ſtones, are quite plain. The outſide circle is nearly one hundred and eighty feet in diameter, between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a ſurpriſing and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland, and the iſles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly of altars and monumental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the higheſt idea of the civil as well as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numerous: one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and paſſing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunſtable, Stratford, Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewſbury, then by Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris, called Hermen-ſtreet, paſſed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaſter, ſtrikes out to the weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. There would, however, be no end of deſcribing the veſtiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which ſerve as foundations to our preſent highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a noble

plan for deſcribing thoſe which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are diſcernible all over England; one particularly, very little defaced, near Dorcheſter in Dorſetſhire, where alſo is a Roman amphitheatre. Their ſituations are generally ſo well choſen, and their fortifications appear to have been ſo complete, that there is ſome reaſon to believe that they were the conſtant habitations of the Roman ſoldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and taſſellated pavements that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magiſtrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewiſe been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and caſtles are blended with thoſe of a later date. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repoſitories, contain a vaſt number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the moſt amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the prætenture or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts' wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway-Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with ſtone forts and turrets at proper diſtances, ſo that each might have a ſpeedy communication with the other; and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military high-way to the ſouth.

The Saxon antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly in eccleſiaſtical edifices, and places of ſtrength. At Wincheſter is ſhown the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been diſputed by Camden and later writers, perhaps with reaſon; but if it be not Britiſh, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Wincheſter ſerved as the burying place of ſeveral Saxon kings, whoſe bones were collected together by biſhop Fox, in ſix large wooden cheſts. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity preſent themſelves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be diſcerned from the Normannic; and the Britiſh Muſeum contains ſeveral ſtriking original ſpecimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, ſigned by the king and his nobles, with a plain croſs inſtead of their names, are ſtill to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witneſs, to his reſpective croſs. The Danifh erections in England are hardly diſcernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences; but their forts are ſquare.

All England is full of Anglo-Normannic monuments, which we chooſe to call ſo, becauſe, though the princes under whom they were raiſed were of Norman original, yet the expenſe was defrayed by Engliſhmen, with Engliſh money. York-minſter, and Weſtminſter-hall and abbey, are, perhaps, the fineſt ſpecimens to be found in Europe of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals and old churches in the kingdom are more or leſs in the ſame taſte, if we except St. Paul's. In ſhort, thoſe erections are ſo common, that they ſcarcely deſerve the name of curioſities. It is uncertain whether the artificial excavations found in ſome parts of England are Britiſh, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old caſtle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and ſeems to have been deſigned for ſecreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invaſion. It contains an oblong-ſquare hall, round

which runs a bench, cut out of the ſame rock, for ſitting upon; and tradition ſays that it was the room in which the barons of England met during the wars with king John. The rock itſelf is ſoft and very practicable; but it is hard to ſay where the excavation, which is continued in a ſquare paſſage, about ſix feet high, and four wide, terminates, becauſe the work is fallen in, in ſome places.

The natural curioſities of England are ſo various, that a general account can only be given. The Bath waters are univerſally celebrated both for drinking and bathing. Spas of the ſame kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkſhire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epſom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Acton and Iſlington in Middleſex. There alſo are many remarkable ſprings, of which ſome are impregnated either with ſalt, as that at Droitwich in Worceſterſhire; or ſulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancaſhire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropſhire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire; and a dropping well in the Weſt riding in Yorkſhire. And, finally, ſome ebb and flow, as thoſe of the Peak in Derbyſhire, and Laywell near Torbay, whoſe waters riſe and fall ſeveral times in a hour. To theſe we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's caſtle in Herefordſhire, commonly called Bone-well, which is generally full of ſmall bones, like thoſe of frogs or fiſh, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancaſhire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any ſmell; yet there is ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſuing out with the ſtream, that, upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſts ſeveral hours, and emits ſo ſtrong a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itſelf will not burn when taken out of the well*.

Derbyſhire is celebrated for many natural curioſities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is ſaid to be continually mouldering away, but never diminiſhes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the ſame place, is a chaſm in the ſide of a mountain, near ſeven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminiſhing in extent within the rock; but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the laſt eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's Hole, near Buxton, for ſeveral paces, is very low, but ſoon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inſide of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much ſhort of what ſome have aſſerted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimenſion: a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its ſounding ſtream, re-echoed on all ſides, very much to the aſtoniſhment of all who viſit this vaſt cavern. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the ſides, have an amuſing effect; for they not only reflect numberleſs rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in ſeveral places into various forms, which, with the help of a ſtrong imagination, may paſs for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that ſtupendous cavern at Caſtleton, which is, from its hideouſneſs, named the Devil's Arſe, is wide at firſt, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who, in a great meaſure, ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern, which is croſſed by four ſtreams of water, and then is thought impaſſable. The vault,

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a veiñ of coals, which has been ſince dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceaſed.

in ſeveral places, makes a beautiful appearance, being chequered with various coloured ſtones.

Some ſpots of England are ſaid to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that, near Whitby in Yorkſhire, are found certain ſtones reſembling the folds and the wreaths of a ſerpent; alſo other ſtones of ſeveral ſizes, and ſo exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which, being broken, do commonly contain the form and likeneſs of ſerpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In ſome parts of Glouceſterſhire, ſtones are found reſembling cockles, oyſters, and other teſtaceous marine animals. Thoſe curioſities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. London*, the metropolis of the Britiſh empire, is the firſt in this diviſion. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæſar and Nero; but by whom, is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and ſoon after became the capital of the iſland. It was firſt walled round with hewn ſtones and Britiſh bricks, by Conſtantine the Great; and the walls formed an oblong ſquare, in compaſs about three miles, with ſeven principal gates. The ſame emperor made it a biſhop's ſee; for it appears that the biſhops of London and York, and another Engliſh biſhop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he alſo ſettled a mint in it, as is plain from ſome of his coins.

London, in its large ſenſe, including Weſtminſter, Southwark, and part of Middleſex, is a city of ſurpriſing extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the moſt extenſive trade. This city, when conſidered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the ſeat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts ſend their commodities, from whence they are again ſent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are conſtantly employed; and from hence ariſes the circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a proſperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the moſt diſtant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen: witneſs their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the ſhops of tradeſmen make ſuch a noble and elegant appearance, or are better ſtocked.

It is ſituated on the banks of the Thames, a river which, though not the largeſt, is the richeſt and moſt commodious for commerce of any in the world; it being continually filled with fleets ſailing to or from the moſt diſtant climates; and its banks, from London-bridge to Blackwall, are almoſt one continued great magazine of naval ſtores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ſhips for the uſe of the merchants, beſide the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards down the river, for the building of men of war. As this city is about ſixty miles diſtant from the ſea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all

* London is ſituated in 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles ſouth of Edinburgh, and 270 ſouth-eaſt of Dublin; 180 miles weſt of Amſterdam, 210 north-weſt of Paris, 500 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen, 600 miles north-weſt of Vienna, 790 ſouth-weſt of Stockholm, 800 north-eaſt of Madrid, 820 north-weſt of Rome, 850 north-eaſt of Liſbon, 1360 north-weſt of Conſtantinople, 1414 ſouth-weſt of Moſcow.

the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurpriſed by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moiſt vapours of the ſea. It riſes regularly from the water-ſide, and, extending itſelf on both ſides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from eaſt to weſt, in a kind of amphitheatre, towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all ſides, in a ſucceſſion of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country-ſeats of gentlemen and tradeſmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of freſh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of buſineſs. The regard paid by the legiſlature to the property of the ſubject has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extenſion.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to aſcertain its extent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt is generally allowed to be above ſeven miles, from Hyde-park Corner to Poplar; and its breadth in ſome places three, in others two, and in others, again, not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almoſt 18 miles; or, according to a modern meaſurement, the extent of continued buildings is 35 miles, two furlongs, and 39 roods. But it is much eaſier to form an idea of the large extent of a city ſo irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion.

Of theſe, beſides St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Weſtminſter, here are 102 pariſh churches, and 69 chapels, of the eſtabliſhed religion; 21 French proteſtant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c.; 26 independent meetings; 34 preſbyterian meetings; 20 baptiſt meetings; 19 popiſh chapels, and meeting-houſes for the uſe of foreign embaſſadors, and people of various ſects; and three Jews' ſynagogues. So that there are 305 places devoted to religious worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-pariſhes uſually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodiſt tabernacles.

There are alſo in and near this city 100 alms-houſes; about 20 hoſpitals and infirmaries; 3 colleges; 10 public priſons; 15 fleſh-markets; 1 market for live cattle; 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c.; 15 inns of court; 27 public ſquares, beſides thoſe within ſingle buildings, as the Temple, &c.; 3 bridges; 49 halls for companies; 8 public ſchools, called free-ſchools; and 131 charity ſchools, which provide education for 5034 poor children: 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houſes, 5975 ale-houſes; 1000 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys; and 150,000 dwelling-houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late eſtimate, conſume annually the following articles of proviſions:

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|---|---|
| Black cattle | 98,244 |
| Sheep and lambs | 711,123 |
| Calves | 194,760 |
| Swine | 186,932 |
| Pigs | 52,000 |
| Poultry and wild-fowl, innumerable | |
| Mackarel, ſold at Billingſgate | 14,740,000 |
| Oyſters, buſhels | 115,530 |
| Small boats of cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above thoſe brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and ſalt-fiſh | 1,398 |
| Butter, pounds weight, about | 16,000,000 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Cheeſe, pounds weight, about | 20,000,000 |
| Gallons of milk | 7,000,000 |
| Barrels of ſtrong beer | 1,172,494 |
| Barrels of ſmall beer | 798,495 |
| Tons of foreign wines | 3,044 |
| Gallons of rum, brandy, and other diſtilled waters, above | 11,000,000 |
| Pounds weight of candles, above | 11,000,000 |

London-bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which, in the courſe of time, gave riſe to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs: from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly ſince the year 1756, when the houſes were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The paſſage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each ſide for foot paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames, where it is 915 feet broad, and has at preſent 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each; but the centre one is conſiderably larger.

Weſtminſter-bridge is reckoned one of the moſt complete and elegant ſtructures of the kind known in the world. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each ſide is a fine baluſtrade of ſtone, with places of ſhelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet; having on each ſide a fine foot-way for paſſengers. It conſiſts of 14 piers, and 13 large and two ſmall arches, all ſemicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the reſt decreaſing four feet each from the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000l. in ſtone and other materials is always under water. This magnificent ſtructure was begun in 1738, and finiſhed 1750, at the expenſe of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Blackfriars-bridge is not inferior to that of Weſtminſter, either in magnificence or workmanſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the two ſhores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many perſons even prefer it to Weſtminſter-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770, at the expenſe of 152,840l., to be diſcharged by a toll upon the paſſengers. It is ſituated almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of Weſtminſter and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and diſcovers the majeſty of St. Pauls in a very ſtriking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the moſt capacious, magnificent, and regular proteſtant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the croſs on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which, in ſome reſpects, it is ſuperior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of ſir Chriſtopher Wren, and, undoubtedly, the only work of the ſame magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finiſhed the building 37 years after he himſelf laid the firſt ſtone. It takes up ſix acres of ground, though the whole length of this church meaſures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expenſe of rebuilding it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million ſterling.

Weſtminſter abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a ve-

nerable pile of building in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Edward the Confeſſor: king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it; this is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commanders by ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen, Walbrook, is admired for its lightneſs and elegance, and does honour to the memory of ſir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſteeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rule for ſuch erections. Few churches in and about London are without ſome beauty. The ſimplicity of the portico in Covent-Garden is worthy the pureſt ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and ſtriking, could it be ſeen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taſte, and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and proportion to recommend them. The banqueting-houſe at Whitehall is but a very ſmall part of a noble palace deſigned by Inigo Jones, for the royal reſidence; and, as it now ſtands, under all its diſadvantages, its ſymmetry and ornaments are in the higheſt ſtyle and execution of architecture.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the outſide it makes a mean and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is ſaid to be the largeſt room in the world, the roof of which is not ſupported by pillars; it being 230 feet long, and 70 broad. The roof is the fineſt of its kind. Here are held the coronation-feaſts of our kings and queens; alſo the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas: and, above ſtairs, that of exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, is juſtly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obeliſks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a ſtair-caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet ſhort of the top, from whence there are other ſteps, made for perſons to look out at the top of all, which is faſhioned like an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the monument, next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II. and his brother, are emblematically repreſented in bas-relief. The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcription, the one deſcribing its dreadful deſolation, and the other its ſplendid reſurrection; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhowing when the pillar was begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by ſir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000l.

The Royal Exchange is a large and noble building, and is ſaid to have coſt above 80,000l.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the fineſt proſpects in the world.

We might here give a deſcription of the Tower, Bank of England, the New Treaſury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horſe-guards at Whitehall, the Manſion-houſe, or houſe of the Lord-mayor, the Cuſtom-houſe, Exciſe-office, India-houſe, and a vaſt number of other public buildings,

beſide the magnificent edifices raiſed by our nobility; as lord Spencer's houſe, Marlborough-houſe, and Buckingham-houſe in St. James's-park; the earl of Cheſterfield's-houſe near Hyde-park; the duke of Devonſhire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's in Berkeley-ſquare; Northumberland-houſe in the Strand; the duke of Bedford's, and Montague-houſe*, in Bloomſbury; with a number of others of the nobility and gentry; but theſe would be ſufficient to fill a large volume.

This great and populous city is happily ſupplied with abundance of freſh water, from the Thames and the New River, which is not only of inconceivable ſervice to every family, but, by means of fire plugs every where diſperſed, the keys of which are depoſited with the pariſh-officers, the city is in a great meaſure ſecured from the ſpreading of fire; for theſe plugs are no ſooner opened, than there are vaſt quantities of water to ſupply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage; it has given riſe to ſeveral companies, who inſure houſes and goods from fire. The premium is ſmall, and the recovery, in caſe of loſs, is eaſy and certain. Every one of theſe offices keeps a ſet of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their aſſiſtance in caſe of fire; and who are, on all occaſions, extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent: but though all their labours ſhould prove unſucceſsful, the perſon who ſuffers by this devouring element has the comfort that muſt ariſe from a certainty of being paid the value (claimed upon oath) of what he has inſured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London (which, like moſt other great cities, had ariſen from ſmall beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy; of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in hiſtory, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and, joined with other circumſtances, ſuch as the want of water, rendered the city ſeldom free from peſtilential devaſtation. The fire which conſumed the greateſt part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that

* The Britiſh Muſeum is depoſited in Montague-houſe. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the Britiſh Muſeum; for its being eſtabliſhed by parliament was only in conſequence of his leaving, by will, his noble collection of natural hiſtory, his large library, and his numerous curioſities, which coſt him 50,000l. to the uſe of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000l. to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuſcripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchaſed likewiſe by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majeſty, in conſideration of its great uſefulneſs, was graciouſly pleaſed to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuſcripts collected by the ſeveral kings of England.

The Sloanian collection conſiſts of an amazing number of curioſities; among which are the library, including books of drawings, manuſcripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals, 268. Veſſels, &c. of agate, jaſper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious ſtones, agate, jaſper, &c. 2,156. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Cryſtals, ſpars, &c. 1,864. Foſſils, flints, ſtones, 1,275. Earths, ſands, ſalts, 1,035. Bitumens, ſulphurs, amber, &c. 399. Talcs, micæ, &c. 388. Corals, ſponges, &c. 2,421. Teſtacea or ſhells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinitæ, &c. 659. Aſteriæi, trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Cruſtaceæ, crabs, lobſters, &c. 563. Stellæ-marinæ, ſtar-fiſhes, &c. 173. Fiſh, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and the neſts of different ſpecies, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, ſerpents, &c. 521. Inſects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus ſiccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miſcellaneous things natural, 2,098. Mathematical inſtruments, 55.—A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

time, was productive of conſequences which made ample amends for the loſſes ſuſtained by individuals; a new city aroſe on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it by no means had the character of magnificence or elegance, in many particulars; and it is ever to be lamented (ſuch was the infatuation of thoſe times) that the magnificent, elegant, and uſeful plan of the great ſir Chriſtopher Wren was totally diſregarded and ſacrificed to the mean and ſelfiſh views of private property; views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themſelves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been aſſerted muſt have been the reſult; the metropolis of this kingdom would, inconteſtably, have been the moſt magnificent and elegant city in the univerſe, and of conſequence muſt, from the prodigious reſort of foreigners of diſtinction and taſte who would have viſited it, have become an inexhauſtible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindneſs of that age has deprived us of ſo valuable an acquiſition, it is become abſolutely neceſſary that ſome efforts ſhould be made to render the preſent plan in a greater degree anſwerable to the character of the richeſt and moſt powerful people in the world.

The plan of London, in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition as can eaſily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the border of ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient; and the want of regularity and uniformity in the ſtreets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are alſo circumſtances that greatly leſſen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewiſe thruſt up in corners, in ſuch a manner as might tempt foreigners to believe that they were deſigned to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for ſome years paſt have however been very great; and the new ſtreets, which are numerous, are in general more ſpacious, and built with greater regularity and elegance.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the nobleſt river in Europe, was a chain of inelegant, ruinous houſes, known by the name of Durham-yard, the Savoy, and Somerſet-houſe. The firſt, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of ſcenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the ſite of Durham-yard was raiſed, upon arches, the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting proſpect, the utility of its wharfs, and its ſubterraneous apartments, anſwering a variety of purpoſes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi ſtands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuiſance; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, ſtood Somerſet-houſe, where, being the property of government alſo, a pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appropriated for the uſe of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of painting and ſculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Though a variety of circumſtances have hitherto been diſadvantageous to the embelliſhment of the metropolis, it muſt at the ſame time be acknowledged, that a ſpirit of improvement ſeems univerſal among all degrees of people. The very elegant and neceſſary method of paving and enlightening the ſtreets is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for ſeveral miles around, upon the ſame model; and, excluſive of lamps regularly placed on each ſide at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſecure by watchmen

ſtationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than thoſe lights, when viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially where the roads run acroſs; and even the principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall-Mall, New Bond-ſtreet, Oxford-ſtreet, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Among the liſt of improvements worthy notice, may be included the Six-Clerks' office, in Chancery-lane, and that very ſubſtantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanlineſs and for their humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, or by the more horrid ſounds iſſuing from the lips of thoſe wretched beings who ſet defiance to all laws divine and human: and here alſo the offender, whoſe crime is not capital, may enjoy all the benefits of a free open air.

Windſor-caſtle is the only fabric that deſerves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding ſituation, which, with the form of its conſtruction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton-court was the favourite reſidence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taſte, and has ſome good apartments, and, like Windſor, lies near the Thames. Both theſe palaces have ſome good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and diſſipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which, for deſign and expreſſion, are reckoned the maſter-pieces of painting, have by his preſent majeſty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-court to the Queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kenſington, which was purchaſed from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. Other houſes, though belonging to the king, are far from deſerving the name of Royal.

Next to theſe, if not ſuperior, in magnificence and expenſive decorations, are many private ſeats in the neighbourhood of London, and in every part of the kingdom, in which the amazing opulence of the Engliſh nation ſhines forth in its fulleſt point of view. In theſe alſo the princely fortunes of the nobility are made ſubſervient to the fineſt claſſical taſte; witneſs the ſeats of the marquis of Buckingham and earl Pembroke. At the ſeat of the latter, more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the poſſeſſion of any other ſubject in the world.

But thoſe capital houſes of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an excellency diſtinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being ſuitable to each other, both in conſtruction and furniture, and all kept in the higheſt preſervation. It often happens, that the houſe, however elegant and coſtly, is not the principal object of the ſeat, which conſiſts in its hortulane and rural decorations, viſtas, opening landſcapes, temples, all of them the reſult of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that we ſhould here enter into a particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of this work: we ſhall therefore only touch upon ſome of the moſt conſiderable.

Briſtol is reckoned the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions, for trade, wealth, and the number of its inhabitants. It ſtands upon the north and ſouth ſide of the river Avon; and the two parts of the city are

connected by a ſtone bridge. The city is not well built; but it is ſuppoſed to contain 15,0000 houſes, and 95,000 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen pariſh churches, beſides ſeven or eight other places of worſhip. On the north ſide of a large ſquare, called Queen's ſquare, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equeſtrian ſtatue of William the Third, there is a cuſtom-houſe, with a quay half a mile in length, ſaid to be one of the moſt commodious in England, for ſhipping and landing of merchants' goods. The exchange, where the merchants and traders meet, is all of freeſtone, and is one of the beſt of its kind in Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ouſe. It is very populous, and ſurrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates and five poſterns. Here are ſeventeen pariſh churches, and a very noble cathedral, or minſter, it being one of the fineſt Gothic buildings in England. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is the largeſt of any in the world, excepting that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the weſt end are two towers, connected and ſupported by an arch which forms the weſt entrance, and is reckoned the largeſt Gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the choir is adorned with ſtatues of all the kings of England, from William the Norman to Henry VI.; and here are thirty-two ſtalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each conſiſting of one piece of alabaſter. Here is alſo a very neat Gothic chapter-houſe. Near the cathedral is the aſſembly-houſe, which is a noble ſtructure, and which was deſigned by the late earl of Burlington. The city has a ſtone bridge of five arches over the river Ouſe.

The city of Exeter was for ſome time the ſeat of the Weſt-Saxon kings; and the walls, which at this time incloſe it, were built by king Athelſtan, who encompaſſed it alſo with a ditch. It is one of the firſt cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent, and the number of its inhabitants. It has ſix gates, and, including its ſuburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are ſixteen pariſh churches, beſides chapels, and five large meeting-houſes, within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter, in ſerges, perpetuans, longells, druggets, kerſeys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to this city by means of ſluices.

The city of Glouceſter ſtands on a pleaſant hill, with houſes on every deſcent, and is a clean, well-built town, with the Severn on one ſide, a branch of which brings ſhips up to it. The cathedral here is an ancient and magnificent ſtructure; and there are alſo five pariſh churches.

Litchfield ſtands in a valley, three miles ſouth of the Trent, and is divided by a ſtream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in the year 1148: it was much damaged during the civil war, but was ſo completely repaired ſoon after the Reſtoration, that it is now one of the nobleſt Gothic ſtructures in England. Litchfield is thought to be the moſt conſiderable city in the north-weſt of England, except Cheſter.

Cheſter is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a noble bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches, over the Dee, which falls into the ſea. It has eleven pariſhes, and nine well-built churches. The ſtreets are generally even and ſpacious, and, croſſing one another in ſtraight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were firſt erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the ſouth ſide of the

city to the caſtle, from whence there is a pleaſant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by ſome of the towers over the gates; and from thence there is a proſpect of Flintſhire, and the mountains of Wales.

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It ſtands upon a rock of free-ſtone, on the banks of the Avon: and a way is cut to it through the rocks, from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, and the ſtreets are ſpacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town.

The city of Coventry is large and populous: it has a handſome town-houſe, and twelve noble gates. Here is alſo a ſpacious market-place, with a croſs in the middle, 60 feet high, which is adorned with ſtatues of ſeveral kings of England, as large as life.

Saliſbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, ſituated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the weſt and ſouth, and by the Bourne on the eaſt. The ſtreets are generally ſpacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finiſhed in 1358, at the expenſe of above 26,000l. is, for a Gothic building, the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful ſpire of freeſtone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the talleſt in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloiſter, which is 150 feet ſquare, and of as fine workmanſhip as any in England. The chapter-houſe, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one ſmall pillar in the centre, ſo much too weak, in appearance, for the ſupport of ſuch a prodigious weight, that the conſtruction of this building is thought one of the greateſt curioſities in England.

The city of Bath took its name from ſome natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. The ſeaſons for drinking the Bath waters are the ſpring and autumn; the ſpring ſeaſon begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn ſeaſon begins with September, and laſts to December; and ſome patients remain here all the winter. In the ſpring, this place is moſt frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleaſure, when at leaſt two thirds of the company, conſiſting chiefly of perſons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amuſements of the place. In ſome ſeaſons there have been no leſs than 8000 perſons at Bath, beſides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings lately erected here are extremely elegant, particularly Queen's-ſquare, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus and Creſcent.

Nottingham is pleaſantly ſituated on the aſcent of a rock, overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the ſouth, and has been made navigable. It is one of the neateſt places in England, and has a conſiderable trade.

No nation in the world has ſuch dock-yards, and all conveniences for conſtruction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portſmouth (the moſt regular fortification in England), Plymouth (by far the beſt dock-yard), Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hoſpital at Greenwich, for ſuperannuated ſeamen, is ſcarcely exceeded by any royal palace, for its magnificence and expenſe.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raiſed the Engliſh to be the firſt and moſt powerful people in the world. Hiſtorical reviews, on this head, would be

tedious. It is ſufficient then to ſay, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the ſcale of commerce. She planned ſome ſettlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expenſe attending them to be defrayed by her ſubjects; and indeed ſhe was too parſimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial ſchemes for the Engliſh trade. The Eaſt-India company owes to him their ſucceſs and exiſtence; and Britiſh America ſaw her moſt flouriſhing colonies riſe under him and his family. The ſpirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty; and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increaſed. It is not intended to follow commerce through all her fluctuations, but only to give a general repreſentation of the commercial intereſt of the nation.

The preſent ſyſtem of Engliſh politics may properly be ſaid to have taken riſe in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed, which naturally allied us to the reformed ſtates, and made all the popiſh powers our enemies.

We began in the ſame reign to extend our trade, by which it became neceſſary for us alſo to watch the commercial progreſs of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obſtruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We then likewiſe ſettled colonies in America, which was become the great ſcene of European ambition; for, ſeeing with what treaſures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conqueſt or plantation would certainly fill the mother-country with gold and ſilver.

The diſcoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the neceſſity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of ſhipping. The ſea was conſidered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of ſovereignty aroſe, called *naval dominion*.

As the chief trade of Europe, ſo the chief maritime power, was at firſt in the hands of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who, by a compact to which the conſent of other princes was not aſked, had divided the newly-diſcovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being ſeiſed by him, he was maſter of the ſhipping of the two nations with which he kept all the coaſts of Europe in alarm, till the armada he had raiſed at a vaſt expenſe for the conqueſt of England was deſtroyed; which put a ſtop, and almoſt an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppreſſed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, reſolved no longer to endure the inſolence of their maſters; they therefore revolted, and, after a ſtruggle in which they were aſſiſted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low-Countries had formed their ſyſtem of government, and ſome remiſſion of the war gave them leiſure to form ſchemes for future proſperity, they eaſily perceived, that, as their territories were narrow, and their numbers ſmall, they could preſerve themſelves only by that power which is the conſequence of wealth; and that by a people, whoſe country produced only the neceſſaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by tranſportation of the products of one country into another.

From this neceſſity, thus juſtly eſtimated, aroſe a plan of commerce,

which was for many years profecuted with an induſtry and ſucceſs perhaps never ſeen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impaſſable bogs erected themſelves into high and mighty ſtates, who ſet the greateſt monarchs at defiance, whoſe alliance was courted by the proudeſt, and whoſe power was dreaded by the fierceſt nations. By the eſtabliſhment of this ſtate, there aroſe to England a new ally, and a new rival.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the cuſtoms produced only 36,000l. a year: at the Reſtoration, they were let to farm for 400,000l. and produced conſiderably above double that ſum before the Revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconſiderable, were computed about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and are now above ſix times that number. In thoſe days we had not only naval ſtores, but ſhips, from our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thouſand other things, came from France. Portugal furniſhed us with ſugars: all the produce of America was brought to us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of the Eaſt-Indies at their own price. The legal intereſt of money was twelve per cent. and the common price of our land, ten or twelve years' purchaſe. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and thoſe but indifferent; the number of Engliſh merchants very ſmall; and our ſhipping much inferior to what lately belonged to the American colonies.

Great-Britain is, of all other countries, the moſt proper for trade; as well from its ſituation as an iſland, as from the freedom and excellency of its conſtitution, and from its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation, our country produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities; as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, ſaffron, &c. Our corn ſometimes preſerves other countries from ſtarving. Our horſes are the moſt ſerviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardineſs, beauty, and ſtrength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biſcuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign veſſels that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcaſes, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almoſt incredible is the value likewiſe of other goods from hence exported, viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, ſhoes, houſehold-ſtuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, ſalmon, oyſters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is ſcarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England. The woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable, and exceeds in goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article: locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, are of ſuperior excellence; houſehold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, alſo, are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great eſteem.

Of the Britiſh commerce, that branch which we enjoyed excluſively, viz. the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the moſt advantageous. Yet, ſince the ſeparation of the American States from Great Britain, the trade, the induſtry, and manufactures of the latter, have continually increaſed. New markets have opened, the returns from which are more certain and leſs tedious than thoſe from America. By ſupplying a greater variety of markets, the ſkill and ingenuity of our artiſans have taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have

been adapted to the wants, not of riſing colonies, but of nations the moſt wealthy and the moſt refined; and our commercial ſyſtem, no longer reſting on the artificial baſis of monopoly, has been rendered more ſolid as well as more liberal. The trade of England to the United States, in a variety of articles, is likewiſe very conſiderable.

The principal iſlands belonging to the Engliſh in the Weſt Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montſerrat, the Bermudas or Somers' Iſlands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Iſlands in the Atlantic ocean, beſides Martinico and St. Lucia, lately taken from the French.

The Engliſh trade with their Weſt-India Iſlands conſiſts chiefly in ſugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel planks, drugs and preſerves; for theſe, the exports from England are oſnaburghs, a coarſe kind of linen, with which the Weſt-Indians now clothe their ſlaves; linen of all ſorts, with broad-cloth and kerſeys, for the planters, their overſeers, and families; ſilks and ſtuffs for their ladies, and houſehold ſervants; hats; red caps for their ſlaves of both ſexes; ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts; gloves and millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and ſilks; ſtrong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheeſe; iron-ware, as ſaws, files, axes, hatchets, chiſſels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augurs, nails, lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet-wares, ſnuffs, and in general whatever is raiſed or manufactured in Great Britain; alſo negroes from Africa, and all ſorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the Eaſt Indies conſtitutes one of the moſt ſtupendous political as well as commercial machines that is to be met with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. This company exports to the Eaſt Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quickſilver. Their imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw-ſilks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China ware, ſalt-petre for home-conſumption; and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

To Turkey, England ſends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hardware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdigris, ſpices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw ſilks, carpets, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and ſome other articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000l. annually, in favour of England. The Engliſh trade was afterwards diminiſhed through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at preſent is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the Engliſh.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fiſh, and Eaſt-India goods; and brings back raw and thrown ſilk, wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury: the balance of this trade, to England, is annually about 200,000l.

To Spain, England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, iron and braſs manufactures, haberdaſhery wares, aſſortments of linen from Germany and elſewhere, for the American colonies; and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and ſilver coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally

of England, whoſe fleets and armies have more than once ſaved her from deſtruction. England ſends to this country almoſt the ſame kind of merchandiſes as to Spain, and receives in return vaſt quantities of wines, with oils, ſalt, dried and moiſt fruits, dying drugs, and gold coin.

The treaty of commerce between England and France has been ſo variouſly repreſented, that it is not eaſy accurately to eſtimate its advantages; but whatever they were, a total ſuſpenſion of them has now taken place, by the preſent war.

England ſends to Flanders, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars, and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loſes upon the balance 250,000l. ſterling yearly. To Germany England ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pewter, ſugars, tobacco, and Eaſt-India merchandiſe; and brings thence vaſt quantities of linen, thread, goat-ſkins, tinned plates, timbers for all uſes, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000l. annually, to the prejudice of England: but that ſum is now greatly reduced, as moſt of the German princes find it their intereſt to clothe their armies in Engliſh manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia, which formerly was againſt England; but the balance was lately vaſtly diminiſhed by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raiſing hemp, flax, making pot-aſhes, iron-works, and tallow, all which uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzick, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are ſent there, for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland conſumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hardware, lead, tin, ſalt, ſea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country. The balance of trade may be eſtimated much in our favour.

To Holland, England ſends an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of merchandiſe; ſuch as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt-India and Turkey commodities, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes return in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is uſually ſuppoſed to be much in favour of England.

England ſends to the coaſt of Guinea ſundry ſorts of coarſe woollen and linen, iron, pewter, braſs, and hardware manufactures, lead, ſhot, ſwords, knives, fire-arms, gun-powder, and glaſs manufactures. And, beſides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately ſupplied the American colonies with negro ſlaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-duſt, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, guinea-grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Perſia, China, and other parts of Aſia, England ſends much foreign ſilver coin and bullion, and ſundry Engliſh manufactures of woollen-goods, and of lead, iron, and braſs; and brings home from thoſe remote regions, muſlins and cottons of many various kinds, callicoes, raw and wrought ſilk, chintz, teas, porcelain, gold-duſt, coffee, ſalt-petre, and many other drugs. And ſo great a quantity of thoſe various merchandiſes are exported to foreign European nations, as more than abudantly compenſates for all the ſilver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce to foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant excluſive charters to particular bodies or corpora-

tions of men; hence the Eaſt-India, South-Sea, Hudſon's-Bay, Turkey, Ruſſia, Royal-African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Ruſſia, and Africa, is now laid open; though the merchant who propoſes to trade thither, muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to their laws and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the purpoſe of ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.

The balance of trade in favour of England has been eſtimated, many years ago, at three millions ſterling. The increaſe of the commerce of this country will clearly appear from a comparative ſtatement of the imports and exports at different periods; the value of which, including foreign merchandize and manufactures in the years undermentioned, was as follows:

| | Imports. | | Exports. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1772, | 14,500,000l. | ..... | 17,719,000l. |
| 1783, | 13,325,000l. | ..... | 14,741,000l. |
| 1792, | 19,629,000l. | ..... | 24,878,000l. |
| 1797, | 21,450,000l. | ..... | 28,325,000l. |

As the quantity of circulating ſpecie may in ſome meaſure indicate the extent of commerce, we may judge of the increaſe of the latter by comparing the ſums which the three laſt monarchs found it neceſſary to coin. By George I. 8,725,921l. ſterling, were coined. In the long reign (thirty-three years) of George II. 11,966,576l. ſterling; and in the firſt twenty-four years of his preſent majeſty's reign the ſums coined amounted to 33,089,374l. ſterling.

The inland trade is far more conſiderable, being valued at upwards of 42,000,000l. ſterling. The coaſting trade is ſaid to give employment to about 100,000 people. The oyſter fiſhery employs about 10,000.

Our bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where thoſe Engliſh manufactures, which are mentioned in the above account, are fabricated; a few general ſtrictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead; and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and has large lace-manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, ſtockings, and caps. Briſtol is ſaid by ſome to employ 2000 veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glaſs-bottle and drinking-glaſs one alone occupying fifteen large houſes: its braſs-wire manufactures are alſo very conſiderable. Extenſive manufactures of all kinds (glaſs, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular) are carried on in London, and its neighbourhood; the gold and ſilver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufacture of baiſe and ſerges. Exeter for ſerges and long ells; and Norwich for its excellent ſtuffs, camlets, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco-boxes, buttons, ſhoe-buckles, etwees, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Eng-

liſh art and induſtry is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hardwares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame of an inferior kind: the cheapneſs of coals and all neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this. One company of iron manufacturers in Shropſhire uſe every day 500 tons of coals in their iron works. In Great Britain there is made every year from 50 to 60,000 tons of pig-iron, and from 20 to 30,000 tons of bar-iron.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond; and, above all, Mancheſter, which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, ticken, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. Beautiful porcelain and earthen-ware have of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, eſpecially thoſe of Axminſter, Wilton, and Kidderminſter, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable; and conſequently are a vaſt ſaving to the nation. Paper, which, till very lately, was imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom.

The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of ſalt-petre, which was firſt attempted in England by ſir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the Eaſt-India company.

After all that has been ſaid on this head, the ſeats of manufactures, and conſequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will always follow thoſe places where living is cheap and taxes are eaſy: for this reaſon they have been obſerved of late to remove towards the northern counties, where proviſions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; add to this, that probably, in a few years, the inland navigations, which are opening in many parts of England, will make great improvements as to its internal ſtate.

## *A* Short View *of the* Stocks, *or* Public Funds *in* England, *with an* Hiſtorical Account *of the* East-India, *the* Bank, *and the* South-Sea Companies.

In order to give a clear idea of the money-tranſactions of the ſeveral companies, it is proper we ſhould ſay ſomething of money in general, and particularly of paper-money, and the difference between that and the current ſpecie. Money is the ſtandard of the value of all the neceſſaries and accommodations of life; and paper-money is the repreſentative of that ſtandard to ſuch a degree, as to ſupply its place, and to anſwer all the purpoſes of gold and ſilver coin. Nothing is neceſſary to make this repreſentative of money ſupply the place of ſpecie, but the credit of that office or company who delivers it; which credit conſiſts in its always being ready to turn it into ſpecie whenever required. This is exactly the caſe of the Bank of England; the notes of this company are of the ſame value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the poſſeſſor pleaſes. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is puniſhed with death, as well as coining.

The method of depoſiting money in the Bank, and exchanging it for

notes (though they bear no intereſt), is attended with many conveniences, as they are not only ſafer than money in the hands of the owner himſelf, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more eaſy conveyance, ſince a Bank-note for a very large ſum may be ſent by the poſt, and, to prevent the deſigns of robbers, may, without damage, be cut in two, and ſent at two ſeveral times. Or bills, called Bank-poſt-bills, may be had by application to the Bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent loſſes by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the perſon who takes them out, at a certain number of days after ſight; which gives an opportunity to ſtop bills at the Bank, if they ſhould be loſt, and prevents their being ſo eaſily negotiated by ſtrangers as common Bank-notes are: and whoever conſiders the hazard, the expenſe, and trouble, there would be in ſending large ſums of gold and ſilver to and from diſtant places, muſt alſo conſider this as a very ſingular advantage. Beſides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are deſtroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of ſuch accident, and ſecurity being given, pay the money to the perſon who was in poſſeſſion of them.

*Bank-notes* differ from all kinds of ſtock in theſe three particulars: 1. They are always of the ſame value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred: and, 3. They bear no intereſt; while *ſtocks* are a ſhare in a company's fund, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. *India-bonds* indeed (by ſome perſons, though erroneouſly, denominated ſtock) are to be excepted; they being made payable at ſix months' notice, either on the ſide of the company, or of the poſſeſſor.

By the word STOCK was originally meant a particular ſum of money contributed to the eſtabliſhing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the perſon became a partner in that trade, and received a ſhare in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to ſignify any ſum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain intereſt till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the ſecurity both of the government and the public companies is eſteemed preferable to that of any private perſon; as ſtock is negotiable, and may be ſold at any time; and as the intereſt is always punctually paid when due, they are enabled to borrow money at a lower intereſt than what might be obtained from lending it to private perſons, where there is often ſome danger of loſing both principal and intereſt.

But as every capital ſtock or fund of a company is raiſed for a particular purpoſe, and limited by government to a certain ſum, it neceſſarily follows, that, when that fund is completed, no ſtock can be bought of the company; though ſhares, already purchaſed, may be transferred from one perſon to another. This being the caſe, there is frequently a great diſproportion between the original value of the ſhares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than ſellers, a perſon who is indifferent about ſelling will not part with his ſhare without a conſiderable profit to himſelf; and, on the contrary, if many are diſpoſed to ſell, and few inclined to buy, the value of ſuch ſhares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who want to turn their ſtock into ſpecie.

Theſe obſervations may ſerve to give our reader ſome idea of the nature of that unjuſtifiable and diſhoneſt practice called *ſtock-jobbing*, the myſtery of which conſiſts in nothing more than this: the perſons

concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or ſell, at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock; againſt which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raiſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by ſpreading rumours, and fictitious ſtories, in order to induce people either to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or to become unwilling to ſell it, and conſequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive ſtock.

The perſons who make theſe contracts are not in general poſſeſſed of any real ſtock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only receive or pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference between the price the ſtock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for perſons not worth 100 pounds to make contracts for the buying or ſelling 100,000 pounds ſtock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer is, in this caſe, called the Bull, and the ſeller the Bear; one is for raiſing or toſſing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon the ſtock.

Beſides theſe, there is another ſet of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the ſame denomination. Theſe are the great monied men, who are dealers in ſtock, and contractors with the government whenever any money is to be borrowed. Theſe, indeed, are not fictitious but real buyers and ſellers of ſtock; but by raiſing falſe hopes, or creating groundleſs fears, by pretending to buy or ſell large quantities of ſtock on a ſudden, by uſing the fore-mentioned ſet of men as their inſtruments, and other ſimilar practices, they are enabled to raiſe or fall ſtocks one or two per cent. at pleaſure.

However, the real value of one ſtock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government by which that credit is ſecured, muſt naturally have a conſiderable effect on the ſtocks. Thus, with reſpect to the intereſt of the proprietors, a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company, which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, muſt be more valuable than an annuity with government ſecurity, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum: and conſequently ſuch ſtock muſt ſell at a higher price than ſuch an annuity. Though it muſt be obſerved, that a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company, producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch ſo much money at market as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the ſtocks of the Eaſt-India, the Bank, and the South-Sea companies, are diſtinguiſhed by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we ſhall give a ſhort hiſtory of each of them, together with an account of the different ſtocks each is poſſeſſed of, beginning with the Eaſt-India company, as the firſt eſtabliſhed.

East-India Company.] The firſt idea of this company was formed in queen Elizabeth's time; but it has ſince undergone great alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50l. ſterling, and its capital only 369,891l. 5s. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital; by which the ſhares were doubled, and conſequently each became of 100l. value, and the capital 739,782l. 10s.; to which capital, if 963,639l. the

profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock will be found to be 1,703,102l. Though the eſtabliſhment of this company was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by ſir Joſiah Child, and other able advocates yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Hindoſtan, damped the ardour of the people to ſupport it; ſo that at the time of the revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction; in conſequence of which, its ſtock often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth; and it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be erected under the authority of parliament.

The oppoſition given to all the public-ſpirited meaſures of king William, by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of conſiderable difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary inquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed; and the ſubſcribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a great intereſt both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in ſome reſpects defective, ſo violent a ſtruggle between the two companies aroſe, that, in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without an additional intereſt; for which conſideration the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies." Its excluſive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther ſum was lent by the company in 1730; by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000l. was reduced to 3 per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade: and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the caſe, pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 1000l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thouſand pounds is the qualification for a director. The directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman, and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, ſix a year, for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of 200l. a year, and each of the directors 150l. The meetings, or courts of directors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but are commonly oftener, being ſummoned as occaſion requires. Out of the body of directors are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection or certain branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, a committee of treaſury, a houſe committee, a committee of warehouſe, a committee of ſhipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of lawſuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private-trade; who have under them a ſecretary, caſhier, clerks, and warehouſe-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, computed to con-

tain above 28,200,000 ſquare miles, and thirty millions of people, muſt be neceſſarily attended with a proportionable increaſe of trade*; and this, joined to the diſſenſions among its managers both at home and abroad, has of late greatly engaged the attention of the legiſlature. A reſtriction has occaſionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament on Indian affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to the year 1756, for the ſpace of forty-ſeven years and a half, divided the ſum of 12,000,000l. or above 280,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per cent. and that at the laſt-mentioned period it appeared, that, beſides the above dividend, the capital ſtock of the company had been increaſed 180,000l. Conſiderable alterations were made in the affairs and conſtitution of the Eaſt-India company, by an act paſſed in 1773, intituled, "An act for eſtabliſhing "certain rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of "the Eaſt-India company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors ſhould, in future, be elected for four years; ſix members annually; but none to hold their ſeats longer than four years. That no perſons ſhould vote at the election of the directors, who had not poſſeſſed their ſtock twelve months. That the ſtock of qualification ſhould, inſtead of 500l. as it had formerly been, be 1000l. That the mayor's court of Calcutta ſhould, for the future, be confined to ſmall mercantile cauſes, to which only its juriſdiction extended before the territorial acquiſition. That, in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one be eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of a chief juſtice and three puiſne judges, and that theſe judges be appointed by the crown. That a ſuperiority be given to the preſidency of Bengal, over the other preſidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal ſhould be veſted in the crown. The ſalaries of the judges were alſo fixed at 8000l. to the chief juſtice, and 6000l. a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the firſt at 25,000l. and the four others at 10,000l. each annually.

In the month of November, 1783, Mr. Fox, then ſecretary of ſtate, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company, under the ſuppoſition of the incompetency of the directors, and the preſent inſolvent ſtate of the company.

The bill paſſed the commons; but an oppoſition was made to it in the houſe of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be ſure to operate againſt the neceſſary power of the crown; and, after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of nineteen peers. The conſequence of this was a change of the miniſtry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

By the new bill, which paſſed at the cloſe of the ſeſſions, 1784, three things were intended:

Firſt, the eſtabliſhing a power of controul in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the reſt of the empire.

* According to liſts laid before the Houſe of Commons, the company employed 110 ſhips, and 8170 men.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Between India and Europe, in carrying cargoes to and from | - - - - - - | 70 ſhips and 7130 men. |
| In the country trade, and from China | - - | 6 packets - 320<br>34 crabs - 720 |

Secondly, the regulating the conduct of the company's ſervants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the puniſhment of thoſe perſons who ſhall nevertheleſs continue in the practice of crimes which have brought diſgrace upon the country.

Accordingly, ſix perſons are to be nominated by the king as commiſſioners for the affairs of India, of whom one of the ſecretaries of ſtate, and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being, ſhall be two; and the preſident is to have the caſting vote, if equally divided. New commiſſioners to be oppointed at the pleaſure of the crown. This board is to ſuperintend, direct, and controul all acts, operations, and concerns, which in any wiſe relate to the civil and military government or revenues of the Britiſh territorial poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies. They are ſworn to execute the ſeveral powers and truſts repoſed in them, without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any perſon whatever. The court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board all minutes, orders, and reſolutions of themſelves, and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and inſtructions, propoſed to be ſent abroad, for their approbation or alteration; none to be ſent until after ſuch previous communication, on any pretence whatſoever. The directors are ſtill to appoint the ſervants abroad; but the king has a power, by his ſecretary of ſtate, to recall either of the governors or members of the councils, or any perſon holding any office under the company in their ſettlements, and make void their appointment. By this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal a controul over the other preſidencies, in all points which relate to any tranſactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues; but the council of Bengal are ſubjected to the abſolute direction of the company at home, and, in all caſes, except thoſe of immediate danger and neceſſity, reſtrained from acting without orders received from hence.

Soon after the paſſing of this act, Mr. Dundas, who had long given unwearied application to the affairs of India, being placed at the head of the board of controul, introduced the laudable practice of bringing annually before a committee of the houſe of commons a ſtatement of the financial concerns of the company abroad, exhibiting the balance upon the compariſon of the revenues and charges of the ſeveral ſettlements. As the company's right to their excluſive trade was, by an act paſſed in 1781, to terminate in March 1794, it became neceſſary to make proviſion for that event; which was effectually done by Mr. Dundas's bill propoſed the 25th of February 1793, which, meeting the approbation of parliament, had the ſingular good fortune of giving equal ſatisfaction to the public and the company: to the public, becauſe inſtead of 400,000l. they were to receive 500,000l. per annum, from the revenues of India; and to the company, becauſe they were ſtill to preſerve their power and privileges, as far as they contributed to promote the intereſts of their commerce,

The information which preceded or accompanied this ſalutary bill gave the moſt favourable view of the company's affairs, and of the great national benefits which have already occurred, and which might be expected in future to flow in ſtill greater abundance from the Indian trade and territory. The revenues of the countries ceded to the company, by Tippoo Sultan, were ſtated at 390,000l.; and the future revenues of the Britiſh poſſeſſions in India were eſtimated at nearly

7,000,000l.; leaving a net ſurplus, after deducting the intereſt on the debts in India, and the civil, military and commercial charges of 1,059,000l. per annum. The annual ſales of India goods in Europe were eſtimated at nearly 5,000,000l. which exceeds the prime coſt and charges, by 743,600l.; and the net ſurplus on the whole of the revenues and trade of the Eaſt-India company, after paying 8 per cent dividend on the capital ſtock of 5,000,000l. is eſtimated at 1,239,241l. per annum.

In July 1797, Mr. Dundas ſtated the total amount of the foreign revenues at 8,154,872l. and the charges upon them at 6,517,057l. leaving a net ſurplus of 1,637,815l. He, at the ſame time, ſtated the amount of the receipts and ſales of company at home, at 7,316,916l.

Bank of England.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England, in conſideration of the loan of 1,200.000l. granted to the government; for which the ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them to trade, in any goods or merchandiſe; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and ſilver coin.

By an act of parliament paſſed in the 8th and 9th years of William III. they were impowered to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171l. 10s. It was then alſo enacted, that Bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal and not a real eſtate; that no contract, either in word or writing, for buying or ſelling Bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books of the Bank within ſeven days, and the ſtock transferred in fourteen days; and that it ſhould be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common ſeal of the Bank, or any ſealed Bank-bill, or any Bank-note, or to alter or eraſe ſuch bills or notes.

By another act paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343l. and they then advanced 400,000l. more to the government; and in 1714, they advanced another loan of 1,500,0000l.

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the intereſt of their capital ſtock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000l.; and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their intereſts in their capital ſtock, ſuch ſums of money as in a general court ſhould be found neceſſary. If any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the Bank not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch a member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in queſtion, but alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with the intereſt of 5 per cent. per annum, for the money ſo omitted to be paid; and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the Bank ſhould then have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter as would ſatisfy the ſame.

After this, the Bank reduced the intereſts of the 2,000,000l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national

debt, due to the Bank, reduced to 1,600,000l. But in 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000l. at 3 per cent. which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; ſo that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800l. due to them in the Exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties for licences to ſell ſpirituous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept an annuity of 39,442l. the intereſt of that ſum at 4 per cent. The company alſo agreed to advance the farther ſum of 1,000,000l. into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties ariſing by the malt and land-tax, at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be iſſued for that purpoſe; in conſideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800l. the intereſt of which as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the ſaid Exchequer bills, they eſtabliſhed what is now called Bank circulation; the nature of which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard to the other ſtocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient to anſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them over and above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in diſcounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and ſilver, and in government ſecurities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above-mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of money than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current caſh ſo large a ſum as a million, with which they were obliged to furniſh the government, without either leſſening that ſum they employed in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have been very diſadvantageous to them), or inventing ſome method that ſhould anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The method which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows:

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a million of money, wherein the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which, the Bank pays the ſubſcribers 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſhould be made upon them for the whole or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for ſuch ſum, till they repay it; which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purpoſes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the caſe), receive ſix and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the ſum of 23,500l. per annum by the contract: as will appear by the following account:

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|---|---|
| The Bank receives from the government for the advance of a million - - - - - | £. 30,000 |
| The Bank pays to the ſubſcribers who advance 100,000l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more | 6,500 |
| The clear gain to the Bank therefore is - - - | £. 23,500 |

This is the ſtate of the caſe, provided the company ſhould make no call on the ſubſcribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, becauſe it would not only leſſen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank ſtock may not improperly be called a trading ſtock, ſince with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and ſilver, in diſcounting bills of exchange*, &c. Beſides which, they are allowed by the government very conſiderable ſums annually, for the management of the annuities paid at their office: all which advantages render a ſhare in their ſtock very valuable, though it is not equal in value to the Eaſt-India ſtock. The company make dividends of the profits half-yearly, of which notice is publicly given, when thoſe who have occaſion for their money may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their intereſt added to the principal†.

We ſhall here give a brief account of ſome recent events of conſiderable importance in the hiſtory of this great company. In the beginning of the year 1797, a ſcarcity of ſpecie prevailing, and an alarm having been excited by the reports of an invaſion, the run became ſo great on ſeveral banks in the north, that they were unable to make their payments, and obliged to draw largely on the Bank, which having before advanced great ſums to government for foreign loans and public ſervices, found the drain of its ſpecie ſo great as to be compelled to repreſent the preſſing neceſſity of the caſe to the miniſter. An order of the privy-council was in conſequence iſſued, prohibiting the Bank from paying in ſpecie, either notes or dividends; and a bill was brought into parliament to ſanction this order, and extend the prohibition to the 24th of June following; after which, it was ſtill further extended to one month after the next ſeſſion of parliament; and in that ſeſſion continued till one month after the termination of the preſent war. The Bank is, however, allowed to reſume its payments in caſh at any intermediate period, by communicating its intention to the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and giving one month's notice. To facilitate commercial intercourſe, bank-notes of one and two pounds were iſſued, and Spaniſh dollars, ſtamped by the Bank, were made current at 4s. 9d. But this being above their real value, and the price of ſilver ſoon after falling, ſuch numbers of counterfeit ſtamps appeared, that it was judged adviſable to call them all in; which was done, the Bank advertiſing, the beginning of October 1797, that they would give caſh for them till the laſt day of that month, but no longer. After the firſt week, as it was apparent that a conſiderable loſs muſt be ſuſtained by the lower and middling claſſes if all the counterfeit ſtamps were refuſed, the Bank, much to its honour, conſented to receive all that were not baſe ſilver.

On the occaſion of this prohibition of payment, a ſecret committee of the Houſe of Commons was appointed to examine the ſtate of the

* At 4 per cent. till the year 1743, when it was advanced to 5.

† The Bank Company is ſuppoſed to have now twelve millions of circulating paper.

outſtanding demands on the Bank of England, and its funds for diſcharging the ſame The ſtatement of theſe demands and funds, to the 25th of February 1797, was as follows:

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| Outſtanding demands | £. 13,770,390 |
| Funds for diſcharging thoſe demands, not including the permanent debt due from government, of 11,686,800l.* which bears an intereſt of three per cent. † | 17,597,280 |
| Surplus of effects of the Bank, excluſive of the above-mentioned permanent debt of 11,686,800l. | £. 3,826,890 |

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general-court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt-India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

South-Sea Company.] During the long war with France in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets inſtead of money, were frequently obliged by their neceſſities to ſell theſe tickets to avaricious men, at a diſcount of 40l. and ſometimes 50l. per cent. By this and other means, the debts of the nation, unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fiſhery," &c.

Though this company ſeemed formed for the ſake of commerce, it is certain that the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war, about making any ſettlement on the coaſt of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people: nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with negroes, of which this company was

* This debt ariſes, and is formed by the following items:

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|---|---|
| The original ſum at the time the charter was granted | £. 1,200,000 |
| Farther ſum lent to Government in 1709 | 400,000 |
| Ditto, in 1742 | 1,600,000 |
| Now called the original fund | 3,200,000 |
| Reſidue of 2,000,000l. Exchequer bills cancelled in 1716 | 500,000 |
| South-Sea ſtock purchaſed in 1722 | 4,000,000 |
| Loan to Government in 1728 | 1,750,000 |
| Ditto, in 1729 | 1,250,000 |
| Ditto, in 1746 | 986,800 |
| | £. 11,686,800 |

† Of the outſtanding demands, the Bank-notes in circulation amounted to 8,640,250l. and the drawing account unpaid dividends, Exchequer bills, and other debts, to 5,130,140l. The funds for diſcharging theſe conſiſted of advances on Government-ſecurity, to the amount of 10,672,480l.; and caſh, bullion, bills diſcounted, and other credits, to the amount of 6,924,790l.

deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other ſums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company were impowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge: and for enabling them to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. they might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo impowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common-ſeal, on the credit of their public ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit triple the value ſo lent.

The fatal South-Sea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt-mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs; and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company; and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were in this ſituation, when, taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South-Sea bubble was projected; the pretended deſign of which was, to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhowing the advantages of the deſign, and inviting perſons into it. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared that every 100l. original ſtock would yield 50l. per annum; which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100l. was ſold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September, it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived. Moſt of the directors were ſeverely fined, to the loſs of nearly all their property; even thoſe who had no ſhare in the deception, becauſe they ought to have oppoſed and prevented it.

By a ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that, from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital ſtock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103l. 8s. 1d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors, ſhould be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which ſhould be converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called the New-South-Sea annuities, and the other fourth part ſhould remain in the company as a trading capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the exchequer to the company for their

whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the ſame ſums always allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South-Sea company: that the accountant of the company ſhould, twice every year, at Chriſtmas and Midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an account of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend; and all dividends ſhould be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what the company might reaſonably divide without incurring any further debt; provided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, untill their debts were diſcharged; and the South-Sea company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from the new joint ſtock of annuities, be liable to all debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities ſhould be entered, and ſigned by the party making ſuch transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom ſuch transfer ſhould be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the ſame ſtock. In every general court, every member having, in his own name and right, 500l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes, and if 5000l. four votes.

The Eaſt-India company, the Bank of England, and the South-Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the million bank, whoſe capital is only one million, conſtituted to purchaſe the reverſion of the long Exchequer orders.

The intereſt of all the debts owing by the government was ſome years ſince reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life-annuities, and the exchequer orders; but the South-Sea company ſtill continues to divide 4 per cent. on their preſent capital ſtock, which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the ſums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different ſtocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*; ſo when a perſon, who is not acquainted with tranſactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of ſtocks, where Bank ſtock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 or 134½, South-Sea ditto 97½, &c. he is to underſtand that 100l of thoſe reſpective ſtocks ſell at ſuch a time for thoſe ſeveral ſums.

In comparing the prices of the different ſtocks one with another, it muſt be remembered, that the intereſt due on them from the time of the laſt payment is taken into the current price, and the ſeller never receives any ſeparate conſideration for it, except in the caſe of India bonds, where the intereſt due is calculated to the day of the ſale, and paid by the purchaſer, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the intereſt on the different ſtocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly underſtood, would lead a perſon, not well acquainted with them, into conſiderable miſtakes in his computation of their value; ſome al-

ways having a quarter's intereſt due on them more than others, which makes an appearance of a conſiderable difference in the price, when in reality there is none at all; thus, for inſtance, Old South-Sea annuities ſell for 85½l. or 85l. 10s. while New South-Sea annuities fetch only 84¾l. or 84l. 15s. though each of them produces the annual ſum of 3 per cent.; but the old annuities have a quarter's intereſt more due on them than the new annuities, which amounts to 15s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two cauſes that will always make one ſpecies of annuities ſell ſomewhat lower than another, though of the ſame real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a ſmall capital, and there not being, for that reaſon, ſo many people at all times ready to buy into them, as into others where the quantity is larger; becauſe it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular ſpecies of annuity, the capital of which is the ſmalleſt.

While the annuities, and intereſt for money advanced, are regularly paid, and the principal inſured by both prince and people (a ſecurity not to be had in other nations), foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be intereſted in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandiſe, and Great Britain can never want caſh to carry her ſchemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is eſtabliſhed on the intereſt of both prince and people, which is the ſtrongeſt ſecurity.

Constitution and Laws.] Tacitus, in deſcribing ſuch a conſtitution as that of England, ſeems to think, that, however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved this to be a miſtake; for, by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the Engliſh conſtitution has exiſted for above 500 years. It muſt at the ſame time be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and ſome interruptions; but its principles are the ſame with thoſe deſcribed by the above-mentioned hiſtorian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern anceſtors of the Engliſh nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the firſt invaſion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the ſame as thoſe mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to ſerve him, were diſtributed among them; and the whole was conſidered as the common property, which they were to unite in defending againſt all invaders. Freſh adventurers coming over under ſeparate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and thoſe leaders at laſt aſſumed the titles of kings over the ſeveral diſtricts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more reſpectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increaſe their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were propoſed in a general aſſembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, ſheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that maſter-piece of judicial policy, the ſubdiviſion of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the ſubdiviſion of hundreds into tithings, names that ſtill ſubſiſt in England; and overſeers were choſen to direct them for the good of the whole. The ſheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the

county; and to him, after the introduction of Chriſtianity, was added the biſhop. In proceſs of time, as buſineſs multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but, by the earlieſt records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the diſpute lay; and here we have the original of Engliſh juries. It is certain that they were in uſe among the earlieſt Saxon colonies, their inſtitution being aſcribed by biſhop Nicholſon to Woden himſelf, their great legiſlator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all thoſe nations which adopted the feudal ſyſtem, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had all of them, a tribunal compoſed of 12 good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them ſo early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

Before the introduction of Chriſtianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are certain that there was no action ſo criminal as not to be compenſated for by money*. A mulct was impoſed, in proportion to the guilt, even if it was murder of the king, upon the malefactor; and by paying it, he purchaſed his pardon. Thoſe barbarous uſages ſeem to have ceaſed ſoon after the Saxons were converted to Chriſtianity; and caſes of felony and murder were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, hereditary, though, in fact, it came to be rendered ſo through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preſerving the regularity of government. Even eſtates and honours were not ſtrictly hereditary, till they were made ſo by William the Norman.

In many reſpects, the firſt princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon conſtitution; but the attempt was to no purpoſe. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints againſt the crown; and, after much war and bloodſhed, the famous charter of Engliſh liberties, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his ſon Henry III. who ſucceeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear that, till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been ſpilt, the commons of England were repreſented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; ſo entirely had the barons engroſſed to themſelves the diſpoſal of property.

The preciſe year when the houſe of commons was formed is not known: but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we ſhall not enter into any diſputes about their ſpecific powers. We therefore now proceed to deſcribe the CONSTITUTION, as it ſtands at preſent.

In all ſtates there is an abſolute ſupreme power, to which the right of legiſlation belongs; and which, by the ſingular conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, is here veſted in the king, lords, and commons.

OF THE KING.] The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is veſted by our conſtitution in a ſingle perſon, king or queen: for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the perſon entitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately intruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim, upon which the right of ſucceſſion to

* Called by the Saxons GUELT; and thence the word *guilty*, in criminal trials.

the throne of theſe kingdoms depends, is, "that the crown, by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary, and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf; but that the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed, or limited, by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal ſucceſſion, by its being transferred from the houſe of Tudor to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him, that, on the death of queen Elizabeth without iſſue, it became neceſſary to recur to the other iſſue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen, whoſe eldeſt daughter Margaret having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the Firſt, was the lineal deſcendant from that alliance. So that in his perſon, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centred all the claims of the different competitors from the Norman invaſion downward: he being indiſputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is ſtill more remarkable, in his perſon alſo centred the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been ſuſpended from the Norman invaſion till his acceſſion. For Margaret, the ſiſter of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironſide, was the perſon in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings (ſuppoſing it not aboliſhed by the Conqueſt) reſided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a deſcent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the reſtorer of the Saxon line. But it muſt be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had ſons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of that royal family king James I. was the direct and lineal deſcendant; and therefore united in his perſon every poſſible claim, by hereditary right, to the Engliſh as well as Scottiſh throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of eſtates, or repreſentative body of the nation, declared that the miſconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant.

In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next proteſtant heirs of the blood-royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of ſucceſſion; with a temporary exception, or preference to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the proteſtant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being proteſtants; and ſhe is now the common ſtock, from whom the heirs of the crown muſt deſcend*.

The true ground and principle, upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a new caſe in politics, which had never before happened in our hiſtory; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeaſance of the right of ſucceſſion, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houſes of parliament; it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was

* A chronology of Engliſh KINGS, ſince the time that this country became united under one monarchy, in the perſon of Egbert, who ſubdued the other princes of the

no king in being. For in a full aſſembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the ſuppoſition of this vacancy, both houſes came to this reſolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and, by the advice of Jeſuits and other wicked perſons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn

Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name Angle-land to this part of the iſland; the Saxons and the Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and ſubdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

| Began to reign. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 800 | Egbert | Saxon Princes. |
| 838 | Ethelwulf | |
| 857 | Ethelbald | |
| 860 | Ethelbert | |
| 866 | Ethelred | |
| 871 | Alfred the Great | |
| 901 | Edward the Elder | |
| 925 | Athelſtan | |
| 941 | Edmund | |
| 946 | Edred | |
| 955 | Edwy | |
| 959 | Edgar | |
| 975 | Edward the Martyr | |
| 978 | Ethelred II. | |
| 1016 | Edmund II. or Ironſide | |
| 1017 | Canute king of Denmark | Daniſh. |
| 1035 | Harold | |
| 1039 | Hardicanute | |
| 1041 | Edward the Confeſſor | Saxon. |
| 1065 | Harold | |
| 1066 | William I. | (Commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the ſouth of England, now annexed to the French monarchy. |
| 1087 | William II. | Sons of the Conqueror. |
| 1100 | Henry I. | |
| 1135 | Stephen, grandſon to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela. | |
| 1154 | Henry II. | (Plantagenet) grandſon of Henry I. by his daughter the empreſs Maud, and her ſecond huſband, Geoffrey Plantagenet. |
| 1189 | Richard I. | ſons of Henry II. |
| 1199 | John | |
| 1216 | Henry III. ſon of John. | |
| 1272 | Edward I. ſon of Henry III. | |
| 1307 | Edward II. ſon of Edward I. | |
| 1327 | Edward III. ſon of Edward II. | |
| 1377 | Richard II. grandſon of Edward III. by his eldeſt ſon the Black Prince. | |
| 1399 | Henry IV. | ſon to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. — Houſe of Lancaſter. |
| 1413 | Henry V. ſon to Henry IV. | |
| 1422 | Henry VI ſon to Henry V. | |
| 1461 | Edward IV. deſcended from Edward III. by Lionel his third ſon. | Houſe of York. |
| 1483 | Edward V. ſon of Edward IV. | |
| 1483 | Richard III. brother to Edward IV. | |
| 1485 | Henry VII. | (Tudor) ſon of the counteſs of Richmond, of the houſe of Lancaſter. — Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. |
| 1509 | Henry VIII. ſon of Henry VII. | |
| 1547 | Edward VI. ſon of Henry VIII. | |
| 1553 | Mary | Daughters of Henry VIII. |
| 1558 | Elizabeth | |
| 1603 | James I. | Great-grandſon of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and firſt of the Stuart family in England. |
| 1625 | Charles I. ſon of James I. | |
| Commonwealth and protectorate of Cromwell. | | |
| 1649 | Charles II. | ſons of Charles I. |
| 1685 | James II. | |

himſelf out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government; and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this ſudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of ſucceſſion, which, from the Norman invaſion, had laſted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almoſt 900.

Though in ſome points the revolution was not ſo perfect as might have been wiſhed, yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and underſtood, and the rights of the ſubject more explicitly guarded by legal proviſions, than in any other period of the Engliſh hiſtory. In particular, it is worthy obſervation, that the convention, in this their judgment, avoided with great wiſdom the extremes into which the viſionary theories of ſome zealous republicans would have led them. They held that this miſconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to ſubvert the conſtitution, and not to an actual ſubverſion or total diſſolution of the government. They, therefore, very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a conſequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to ſubſiſt, though the executive magiſtrate was gone; and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. And thus the conſtitution was kept entire; which, upon every ſound principle of government, muſt otherwiſe have fallen to pieces, had ſo principal and conſtituent a part as the royal authority been aboliſhed, or even ſuſpended.

Hence it is eaſy to collect, that the title to the crown is at preſent hereditary, though not quite ſo abſolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common ſtock or anceſtor, from whom the deſcent muſt be derived, is alſo different. Formerly the common ſtock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common ſtocks united, and ſo continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688; now it is the princeſs Sophia, in whom the inheritance was veſted by the new king and parliament. Formerly the deſcent was abſolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any reſtriction; but now, upon the new ſettlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to ſuch heirs only of the body of the princeſs Sophia as are proteſtant members of the church of England, and are married to none but proteſtants.

And in this due medium conſiſts the true conſtitutional notion of the

| Began to reign. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1688 | William III. nephew and ſon-in-law of James II. and Mary, daughters of James II. | in whom ended the proteſtant line of Charles I. For James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his ſuppoſed infant ſon (the late Pretender), who was excluded by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the next proteſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James, at the time of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles who ſucceeded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſwick Luneburgh, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by act of parliament expreſsly made in favour of his mother. |
| 1702 | Anne | |
| 1714 | George I. | Houſe of Hanover. |
| 1727 | George II. ſon of George I. | |
| 1760 | George III. grandſon of George II. | |

right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdoms. The extremes between which it ſteers have been thought each of them to be deſtructive of thoſe ends for which ſocieties were formed and are kept on foot. Where the magiſtrate, upon every ſucceſſion, is elected by the people, and may, by the expreſs proviſion of the laws, be depoſed (if not puniſhed) by his ſubjects, this may ſound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever found extremely difficult and dangerous. On the other hand, divine indefeaſible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited paſſive obedience, is ſurely, of all conſtitutions, the moſt thoroughly ſlaviſh and dreadful. But when ſuch an hereditary right as our laws have created and veſted in the royal ſtock is cloſely interwoven with thoſe liberties which are equally the inheritance of the ſubject, this union will form a conſtitution, in theory the moſt beautiful of any, in practice the moſt approved, and, in all probability, in duration the moſt permanent. This conſtitution it is the duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expreſſed in his oath at the coronation, which is adminiſtered by one of the archbiſhops or biſhops of the realm, in the preſence of all the people, who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*The archbiſhop, or biſhop, ſhall ſay*, Will you ſolemnly promiſe and ſwear to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the ſtatutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and cuſtoms of the ſame?—*The king or queen ſhall ſay*, I ſolemnly promiſe ſo to do.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop*. Will you, to your power, cauſe law and juſtice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—*King or queen*. I will.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop*. Will you to the utmoſt of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the proteſtant reformed religion eſtabliſhed by the law? And will you preſerve unto the biſhops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all ſuch rights and privileges as by the law do or ſhall appertain unto them, or any of them?—*King or queen*. All this I promiſe to do.

"*After this, the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy goſpel, ſhall ſay*, The things which I have here before promiſed, I will perform and keep: ſo help me God. *And then kiſs the book*."

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now preſcribed by our laws: and we may obſerve, that, in the king's part in this original contract, are expreſſed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law; to execute judgment in mercy; and to maintain the eſtabliſhed religion. With reſpect to the latter of theſe three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Anne, c. 8, two preceding ſtatutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England; which enact, the former, that every king at his acceſſion ſhall take and ſubſcribe an oath, to preſerve the proteſtant religion, and preſbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that, at his coronation, he ſhall take and ſubſcribe a ſimilar oath, to preſerve the ſettlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is the greateſt monarch reigning

over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon ſo much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime; the law taking no cogniſance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits or the boundaries preſcribed by the conſtitution; he can make no new laws, nor raiſe any new taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; ſend and receive embaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of rebellions; grant commiſſions to his officers, both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c.; ſummon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it has paſſed both houſes; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very ſeldom ventured to exerciſe. He poſſeſſes the right of chooſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſehold, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

Of the Parliament.] Parliaments, or general councils, in ſome ſhape, are, as has been before obſerved, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this iſland, and coeval with the kingdom itſelf. Blackſtone, in his valuable Commentaries, ſays, "It is generally agreed, that in the main the conſtitution of parliament, as it now ſtands, was marked out ſo long ago as the 17th of king John, A.D. 1215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince; wherein he promiſes to ſummon all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, lords, and greater barons, perſonally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the ſheriffs and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days' notice, to aſſeſs aids and ſcutages when neceſſary. And this conſtitution hath ſubſiſted, in fact, at leaſt from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being ſtill extant writs of that date to ſummon knights, citizens, and burgeſſes to parliament."

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt not be intermitted above three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king ſitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three eſtates of the realm; the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal, who ſit together with the king in one houſe, and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in another. The king and theſe three eſtates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For, upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary, for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent; ſince the law muſt perpetu-

ally ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh government, were it maintained in its purity, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people, by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved; while the king is a check upon both; which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers, ſome by creation, as do all the new-made ones; others, ſince the union with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the ſixteen peers, who repreſent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will, by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compounded conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people, by forming a barrier to withſtand the incroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne; and if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men of any property in the kingdom as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentative*. In a free ſtate, every man who is ſuppoſed a free agent ought to be, in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentatives which it is impracticable to perform in perſon,—repreſentatives choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts, wherein all the voters are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt of the nation †. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of

* This muſt be underſtood with ſome limitation. Thoſe who are poſſeſſed of land eſtates, though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have moſt of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which ſend no members to parliament; and of thoſe towns which do ſend members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thouſand perſons of great perſonal property have, therefore, no repreſentatives. Indeed, the inequality and defectiveneſs of the repreſentation has been juſtly conſidered as one of the greateſt imperfections in the Engliſh conſtitution. The duration of parliaments being extended to ſeven years has alſo been viewed in the ſame light.

† Copy of the bribery oath, which is adminiſtered to every perſon before they poll: "I ——— do ſwear (or, being one of the people called Quakers, do ſolemnly affirm) I have not received or had, by myſelf, or any perſon whatſoever in truſt for me, or for my uſe and benefit, directly, or indirectly, any ſum or ſums of money, office, place, or employment, gift, or reward, or any promiſe or ſecurity for any money, office, or employment, or gift, in order to give my vote at this election; and that I have not before been polled at this election. So help me God!"

Scots 45; in all, 558. And every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, and to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons.

These are the constituent parts of parliament, the king, the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons; parts, of which each is so necessary, that the consent of all three is required to make any new law that shall bind the subject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no statute; and to it no regard is due, unless in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and jurisdiction of parliament, says sir Edward Coke, is so transcendent and absolute, that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. It hath sovereign and uncontroulable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal; this being the place where that absolute despotic power, which must in all governments reside somewhere, is intrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances, oppressions and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown; as was done in the reigns of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter and establish the religion of the land; as was done in a variety of instances in the reigns of Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves; as was done by the act of union, and the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections. It can, in short, do every thing that is not naturally impossible; and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power, by a figure rather too bold, *the omnipotence of parliament*. But then its power, however great, was given to it in trust, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of justice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is a matter most essential to the liberties of the kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord-treasurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament;" and, as sir Matthew Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a misgovernment should any way fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy.

In order to prevent the mischiefs that might arise by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable or else improper to manage it, it is provided, that no one shall sit or vote in either house of parliament, unless he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member shall vote or sit in either house, till he hath, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, and subscribed and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. To prevent dangers that may arise to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connections, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions

of the crown of Great Britain, even though he be naturaliſed, ſhall be capable of being a member of either houſe of parliament.

Some of the moſt important privileges of the members of either houſe are, privilege of ſpeech, of perſon, of their domeſtics, and their lands and goods. As to the firſt, privilege of ſpeech, it is declared by the ſtatute of 1. W. & M. ſt. 2, c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of ſpeech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or queſtioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of ſpeech is particularly demanded of the king in perſon, by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So are the other privileges, of perſon, ſervants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but alſo from legal arreſts, and ſeiſures by proceſs from the courts of law. To aſſault by violence a member of either houſe, or his menial ſervants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. Neither can any member of either houſe be arreſted and taken into cuſtody, nor ſerved with any proceſs of the courts of law; nor can his menial ſervants be arreſted; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be diſtrained or ſeiſed, without a breach of the privilege of parliament*.

The houſe of lords have a right to be attended, and conſequently are, by the judges of the courts of king's bench and common pleas, and ſuch of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made ſerjeants at law, as likewiſe by the maſters of the court of chancery, for their advice in points of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The ſpeaker of the houſe of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great ſeal; which dignities are commonly veſted in the ſame perſon.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the houſe, as being his own repreſentative, when a vote paſſes contrary to his ſentiments, to enter his diſſent on the journals of the houſe, with the reaſons of ſuch diſſent; which is uſually ſtyled his proteſt. Upon particular occaſions, however, theſe proteſts have been ſo bold as to give offence to the majority of the houſe, and have therefore been expunged from their journals; but this has always been thought a violent meaſure.

The houſe of commons may be properly ſtyled the grand inqueſt of Great Britain, impowered to inquire into all national grievances, in order to ſee them redreſſed. The peculiar laws and cuſtoms of the houſe of commons relate principally to the raiſing of taxes, and the elections of members to ſerve in parliament. With regard to taxes—it is the ancient indiſputable privilege and right of the houſe of commons, that all grants of ſubſidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their houſe, and are firſt beſtowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purpoſes, until they have the aſſent of the other two branches of the legiſlature. The general reaſon given for this excluſive privilege of the houſe of commons is, that the ſupplies are raiſed upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone ſhould have the right of taxing themſelves: and ſo reaſonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not ſuffer the other houſe to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the leaſt

* This exemption from arreſts for lawful debts was always conſidered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generouſly relinquiſhed their privileges by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houſes may now be ſued like other debtors.

alteration or amendment to be made by the lords in the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill. Under this appellation are included all bills by which money is directed to be raiſed upon the ſubject, for any purpoſe, or in any ſhape whatſoever, either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax, or for private benefit, and collected in any particular diſtrict, as by turnpikes, parith-rates, or in any other manner.

The method of making laws is much the ſame in both houſes. In each houſe, the act of the majority binds the whole; and this majority is declared by votes publicly and openly given; not, as at Venice, and many other ſenatorial aſſemblies, privately or by ballot. This latter method may be ſerviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconſtitutional combinations; but it is impoſſible to be practiſed with us, at leaſt in the houſe of commons, where every member's conduct is ſubject to the future cenſure of his conſtituents, and therefore ſhould be openly ſubmitted to their inſpection.

To bring a bill into the houſe of commons, if the relief ſought by it is of a private nature, it is firſt neceſſary to prefer a petition, which muſt be preſented by a member, and uſually ſets forth the grievance deſired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature diſputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the houſe; and then (or, otherwiſe, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters the bill is brought in upon motion made to the houſe without any petition. (In the houſe of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alleged, to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a firſt time; and, at a convenient diſtance, a ſecond time; and after each reading, the ſpeaker opens to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion whether it ſhall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may, at either of the readings; and if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropt for that ſeſſion; as it muſt alſo, if oppoſed with ſucceſs in any of the ſubſequent ſtages.

After the ſecond reading, it is committed; that is, referred to a committee, which is either ſelected by the houſe, in matters of ſmall importance; or elſe, if the bill is a matter of great or national conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe. A committee of the whole houſe is compoſed of every member; and, to form it, the ſpeaker quits the chair (another member being appointed chairman), and may ſit and debate as a private member. In theſe committees, the bill is debated, clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill is entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with ſuch amendments as the committee have made: and then the houſe reconſider the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have agreed or diſagreed to the amendments of the committee, and ſometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed, or written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment ſewed together. When this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and amendments are ſometimes then made to it; and, if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again opens the contents, and,

holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion whether the bill ſhall paſs. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then ſettled. After this it is carried to the lords, for their concurrence, by one of the members, who, attended by ſeveral more, preſents it at the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it. It there paſſes through the ſame forms as in the other houſe (except engroſſing, which is already done), and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it paſſes *ſub ſilentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery (or ſometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the ſame: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe, who, for the moſt part, ſettle and adjuſt the difference; but if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint them therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both houſes have done with any bill, it always is depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the houſe of commons. It may be neceſſary here to acquaint the reader, that, both in the houſes and in their committees, the ſlighteſt expreſſion, or moſt minute alteration, does not paſs till the ſpeaker or the chairman puts the queſtion; which, in the houſe of commons, is anſwered by *aye* or *no*; and in the houſe of peers, by *content* or *not content*.

The giving the royal aſſent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to paſs bills in perſon, he appears on his throne in the houſe of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of ſtate, and heralds. A ſeat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly ſat, is reſerved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood ſit on the left hand of the king, and the chancellor on a cloſe bench removed a little backwards. The viſcounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of biſhops runs along the houſe, to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, ſit upon wool-packs, between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the houſe ſitting on wool is ſymbolical of wool being formerly the ſtaple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on ſolemn occaſions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the ſpeaker, who wears a long black ſilk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways; 1. In perſon. When the king ſends for the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers, the ſpeaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addreſſes his majeſty in a ſolemn ſpeech, in which he ſeldom fails to extol the generoſity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majeſty how neceſſary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this oc-

caſion, that the commons of Great Britain appear in their higheſt luſtre The titles of all bills that have paſſed both houſes are read; and the king's anſwer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. If the king conſents to a public bill, the clerk uſually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it ſo to be:" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait comme il eſt deſiré*, "be it as it is deſired." If the king refuſes his aſſent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s'aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon it." When a money-bill is paſſed, it is carried up and preſented to the king by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and the royal aſſent is thus expreſſed, *le roy remercie ſes loyal ſubjects, accepte leur benevolence, et auſſi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it ſo to be." In caſe of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal aſſent in the firſt ſtage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the ſubject: *les prelats, ſeigneurs, et commons, en ce preſent parliament aſſemblés, au nom de tout vos autres ſubjects, remercient très humblement votre majeſté, et prient à Dieu vous donner en ſanté bonne vie et longue*: "the prelates, lords, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the ſtatute 33 Henry VIII. c. 21, the king may give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence, to both houſes aſſembled together in the high houſe, by commiſſioners conſiſting of certain peers named in the letters. And, when the bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

The ſtatute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was neceſſary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; becauſe every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being preſent thereat by his repreſentatives. However, copies thereof are uſually printed at the king's preſs, for the information of the whole land.

From the above general view of the Engliſh conſtitution, it appears that no ſecurity for its permanency, which the wit of man can deviſe, is wanting. If it ſhould be objected that parliaments may become ſo corrupted, as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over their political exiſtence, as a private perſon does over his natural life. If a parliament were to act in that manner, it muſt become *felo de ſe*, an evil that no human proviſions can guard againſt. But there are great reſources of liberty in England; and though the conſtitution has been even overturned, and ſometimes dangerouſly wounded, yet its own innate powers have recovered and ſtill preſerve it.

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him, and who are reſponſible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and, on taking the requiſite oaths, they become immediately privy-counſellors during the life of the king that chooſes them, but ſubject to removal at his pleaſure.

The duty of a privy counſellor appears from the oath of office, which conſiſts of ſeven articles: 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour, and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption.

5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved, 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt the contrary. And, laſtly, in general, 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do to his ſovereign lord.

As no government can be ſo complete as to be provided with laws that may anſwer every unforeſeen emergency, the privy-council, in ſuch caſes, can ſupply the deficiency. It has been ever known, that, upon great and urgent occaſions, ſuch as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can ſuperſede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not ſitting; but this is conſidered as illegal, and an act of parliament muſt paſs for the pardon and indemnification of thoſe concerned.

The office of ſecretary of ſtate was formerly divided into a ſouthern and a northern department. The ſouthern contained France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiſs cantons, Conſtantinople, and, in ſhort, all the ſtates in the ſouthern parts. The northern comprehended the different ſtates of Germany, Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanſeatic towns. This diſtinction is now aboliſhed; and there is one ſecretary for foreign affairs, and another for the home department. During the American war, there was a third ſecretary of ſtate, whoſe office was revived in 1794, by the title of ſecretary for the war department.

The cabinet council is a committee of the privy council, conſiſting of a ſelect number of miniſters and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court; but though its operations are powerful and extenſive, a cabinet-council is not eſſential to the conſtitution of England.

This obſervation naturally leads us to mention the perſon who is ſo well known by the name of the *firſt miniſter*; a term unknown to the Engliſh conſtitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps neceſſary. The conſtitution points out the lord high chancellor as miniſter: but the affairs of his own court give him ſufficient employment. When the office of the firſt lord of the treaſury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which we ſhall explain hereafter) in the ſame perſon, he is conſidered as firſt miniſter. The truth is, his majeſty may make any of his ſervants his firſt miniſter. But though it is no office, yet there is a reſponſibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a poſt of difficulty and danger. We ſhall now take a ſhort review of the nine great officers of the crown, who, by their poſts, take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The firſt is the lord high ſteward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at leaſt for life: but now, and for centuries paſt, it is exerciſed only occaſionally; that is, at a coronation, or to ſit as a judge on a peer or peereſs, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held for that day only, by ſome high nobleman. In caſes of trials, it is exerciſed generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper, whoſe commiſſion as high ſteward ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor preſides in the court of chancery, to moderate the ſeverities of the law, in all caſes where the property of the ſubject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reaſon. He is an officer of the greateſt weight and power of any now ſubſiſting in the kingdom, and is ſuperior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy-counſellor by his office; and, according to ſome, prolocutor of the houſe of lords by preſcription.

To him belongs the appointment of all juſtices of the peace; he is viſitor, in right of the king, of all hoſpitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20l. per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and hath the ſuperintendance of all charitable uſes in the kingdom, over and above the extenſive juriſdiction which he exerciſes in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The poſt of lord high treaſurer has of late been veſted in a commiſſion, conſiſting of five perſons, who are called lords of the treaſury; but the firſt commiſſioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the power of lord high treaſurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer; as alſo the letting of the leaſes of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the cuſtoms in the ſeveral ports of the kingdom.

The lord preſident of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor and lord treaſurer. His duty is to propoſe all the buſineſs tranſacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majeſty is not preſent, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vaſt number of American and Weſt-Indian cauſes, captures, and the like affairs that come before the board; all which may be abridged, to the vaſt convenience of the ſubject, by an able preſident.

The office of lord privy-ſeal conſiſts in his putting the king's ſeal to all charters grants, and the like, which are ſigned by the king, in order to their paſſing the great ſeal; and he is reſponſible if he ſhould apply the privy-ſeal to any thing againſt the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Ancaſter's family. He attends the king's perſon, on his coronation, to dreſs him: he has likewiſe charge of the houſe of lords during the ſitting of parliament; and of fitting up Weſtminſter-hall for coronations, trials of peers, or impeachments.

The office of lord high conſtable has been diſuſed ſince the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occaſionally revived for a coronation.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marſhal of England. Before England became ſo commercial a country as it has been for a hundred years paſt, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the Engliſh hiſtory, for its diſcharge. In war time he was judge of army cauſes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe did not admit of ſuch a deciſion, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a vaſt variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the ſmalleſt trifle, fell within the marſhal's province. To this day he or his deputy regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his juriſdiction. He directs all ſolemn proceſſions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like.

The office of lord high admiral of England* is now likewiſe held by commiſſion, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, eſpecially ſince the increaſe of the Britiſh naval power. The Engliſh admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itſelf. All trials upon life and death,

* The laſt lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and huſband to queen Anne.

in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commiſſion immediately iſſuing from that board; and the members muſt ſign even the death-warrants for execution: but it may be eaſily conceived, that, as they are removable at pleaſure, they do nothing that can claſh with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themſelves to the directions they receive from his majeſty. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named: ſo that its juriſdiction is very extenſive. The commiſſioners appoint vice-admirals under them: but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature. This court is held in London; and all its proceſſes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or thoſe of the commiſſioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law: but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at ſea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

Courts of Law.] The court of chancery, which is the court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor ſits as ſole judge, and, in his abſence, the maſter of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees; the witneſſes being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and, conſequently, if a man refuſes to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſend him to the priſon of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he ſees reaſon for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court; he, or is deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs. Through his hands paſs all writs for ſummoning the parliament or chooſing of members, commiſſions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, ſo called either from the kings of England ſometimes ſitting there in perſon, or becauſe all matters determinable by common law between the king and his ſubjects are here tried, except ſuch affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewiſe, a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and juſtices of the peace. Here preſide four judges, the firſt of whom is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of England, to expreſs the great extent of his juriſdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cauſe depending either in ſpiritual or temporal courts; and the houſe of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called juſtices, or judges, of the King's Bench.

The court of Common Pleas takes cogniſance of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending between ſubject and ſubject; and in it, beſides all real actions, fines and recoveries are tranſacted, and prohibitions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The firſt judge of this court is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the Common Pleas, or common bench: beſide whom there are likewiſe three other judges, or juſtices of this court. None but ſerjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was inſtituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other barons, preſide as judges. They are ſtyled barons, becauſe formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beſides theſe, there is a fifth, called cuſtos baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in adminiſtering the oath to ſheriffs and other officers, and alſo to ſeveral of the officers of the cuſtom-houſe. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preſide, aſſiſted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treaſury, revenue, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and determined. Beſides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms, exciſe, parliamentary aids and ſubſidies, &c. except the accounts of the ſheriffs and their officers; the lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs it is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-ſheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Weſtmorland and Middleſex) by the king *; whoſe office is both miniſterial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of juſtice; to impanel juries; to bring cauſes and malefactors to trial; to ſee ſentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the aſſize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. He is likewiſe to decide the elections of knights of the ſhire, of coroners and verderers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return ſuch as he ſhall determine to be duly elected. It is alſo part of his office to collect all public fines, diſtreſſes, amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch payments out of them as his majeſty ſhall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court called the county court, which is held by the ſheriff, or his under-ſheriffs, to hear and determine all civil cauſes in the county, under forty ſhillings: this, however, is no court of record: but the court, formerly called the ſheriff's tourn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court inquiry was made into all criminal offences againſt the common law, where by the ſtatute law there was no reſtraint. This court, however, has been long ſince aboliſhed. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and ſpecial commiſſion, he is the firſt man in the county, and ſuperior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *poſſe comitatus*, or power of the county.

Under the ſheriff are various officers, as the under-ſheriffs, clerks, ſtewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called ſerjeants), conſtables, gaolers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the ſheriff is the *juſtice of peace*, ſeveral of whom are commiſſioned for each county: and to them is intruſted the power of putting great part of the ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to priſon all who

* Sheriffs were formerly choſen by the inhabitants of the ſeveral counties. In ſome counties the ſheriffs were formerly hereditary, and ſtill continue in the county of Weſtmorland. The city of London hath alſo the inheritance of the ſhrievalty of Middleſex veſted in their body by charter.

break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt of the county, is ſummoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to inquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill, guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the juſtices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county. The juſtice of peace ought to be a perſon of great good ſenſe, ſagacity, and integrity, and to be not without ſome knowledge of the law: for otherwiſe he may commit miſtakes, or abuſe his authority; for which, however, he is amenable to the court of King's Bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to inquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of their office is to inquire concerning ſhipwreck, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in poſſeſſion of the goods. In his miniſterial office, he is the ſheriff's ſubſtitute.

The civil government of cities is a kind of ſmall independent policy of itſelf; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a juriſdiction within itſelf, to judge in all matters civil and criminal; with this reſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all offences that are capital are committed to the judge of the aſſize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitutions. They are conſtituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeſſes, who, together, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chooſe their own ſheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the Engliſh government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the ſame manner: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; all which, during their mayoralty or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the peace within their liberties, and conſequently eſquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly eſteemed moſt important ones, that lie on the eaſt part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Haſtings, and Hythe, to which Winchelſea and Rye have been ſince added, with ſimilar franchiſes in many reſpects. Theſe cinque ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a certain number of ſhips, at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the ſoil or manor (who were formerly called barons) have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chiefly to prevent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their eſtates on deſcent or purchaſe.

A *conſtable* is a very ancient and reſpectable officer of the peace, under the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high-conſtable, and every pariſh in that hundred a conſtable; and they are to attend the high-conſtable upon proper occaſions. They are aſſiſted by another ancient

officer called the tythingman, who formerly ſuperintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burgh conſiſting of ten families. The buſineſs of conſtable is to keep the peace in all caſes of quarrels and riots. He can impriſon offenders till they are brought before a juſtice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his diſtrict, every warrant that is directed to him from that magiſtrate, or a bench of juſtices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preſervation of the peace, and the more eaſy recovery of ſmall debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has of late been found neceſſary to revive ſome of them, and to appoint others of a ſimilar nature.

Beſides theſe, there are courts of conſcience in many parts of England, for the relief of the poor, in the recovery of payment of ſmall debts, not exceeding forty ſhillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any conſtitution provided with ſo many fences as that of England is, for the ſecurity of perſonal liberty. Every man impriſoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge at Weſtminſter-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after conſidering the cauſe of commitment, ſhall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of juſtice.

The rights of individuals are ſo attentively guarded, that the ſubject may, without the leaſt danger, ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be caſt, and be obliged to pay damages to his ſubject. The king cannot take away the liberty of the meaneſt individual, unleſs he has, by ſome illegal act of which he is accuſed or ſuſpected upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons on ſuch a ſuſpicion of guilt; ſuch as the caſe of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legiſlature has ſometimes thought proper to paſs a temporary ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he, nor the judges to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be firſt found guilty by twelve men, who muſt be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king or his miniſters to miſrepreſent the caſe to the jury, they have their ſalaries for life, and not during the pleaſure of their ſovereign. Neither can the king take away or endanger the life of any ſubject, without trial, and the perſons being firſt chargeable with a capital crime, as treaſon, murder, felony, or ſome other act injurious to ſociety; nor can any ſubject be deprived of his liberty, for the higheſt crime, till ſome proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magiſtrate; and he has then a right to inſiſt upon his being brought, the firſt opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be reſtored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alleged to be committed, and not unleſs twelve of them agree to a bill of indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men, whoſe opinion is definitive. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury ſhall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial;—a privilege indulged to ſtrangers in no other country in the world, but which is as

ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred *. In ſome caſes, the man (who is always ſuppoſed innocent till there be ſufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of the indictment, in order to aſſiſt him to make his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the pannel, or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number †; and to as many more as he can give reaſon for their not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the place where the ſuppoſed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king and the priſoner, whom they ſhall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſibility of bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power; by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to be men who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the evidence. Theſe only are the judges from whoſe ſentence the priſoner is to expect life or death; and upon their integrity and underſtanding, the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and, after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the priſoner. Every juryman is therefore veſted with a ſolemn and awful truſt: if he without evidence ſubmits his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yields in complaiſance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmoſt care; if he queſtions the veracity of the witneſſes, who may be of an infamous character; or, after the moſt impartial hearing, has the leaſt doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the perſon accuſed, he will wound his own conſcience, and bring upon himſelf the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Engliſhmen conſiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent whom he wiſhes to bring in guilty. Were not this the caſe, juries would be uſeleſs; for far from being judges themſelves, they would only be the tools of another, whoſe province is not to guide, but to give a ſanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the ſubject, and the judge on the bench be the miniſter of the prince's vengeance.

Trial by jury is ſo capital a privilege, and ſo great a ſecurity to the liberty of the ſubject, that it is much to be regretted that perſons of education and property are often too ready to evade ſerving the office. By this means juries frequently conſiſt of ignorant and illiterate perſons, who neither have knowledge enough to underſtand their rights and the privileges of Engliſhmen, nor ſpirit enough to maintain them. No man ſhould be above ſerving ſo important an office, when regularly called upon; and thoſe who, from indolence or pride, decline diſcharging this duty to their country, ſeem hardly to deſerve that ſecurity and liberty which the inhabitants of England derive from this invaluable inſtitution. Juries have, indeed, always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny: for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a

* Statuta de Monticolis Walliæ.

† The party may challenge thirty-five, in caſe of treaſon.

bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic at Venice, might take effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman againſt a ſubject," ſays he, "let all ways be tried to juſtify him; and if that is not poſſible to be done, let him be chaſtiſed with greater noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity, that the ſubjects may not get too great a cuſtom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In ſhort, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleaſed, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy conſtitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meaneſt, as well as the greateſt. When a priſoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and, though the judges are ſuppoſed to be counſel for the priſoner, yet as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed him: he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may ſet it aſide, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanted to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made uſe of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account may be uſeful to foreigners and others, who have not ſeen thoſe proceedings.

The court being met, and the priſoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accuſed, and aſks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the priſoner anſwers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he anſwers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confeſſed the fact: for the law of England takes no notice of ſuch confeſſion; and unleſs the witneſſes, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury muſt acquit him; for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the priſoner refuſes to plead, that is, if he will not ſay in court whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he might, till lately, by the law of England, be preſſed to death, with a load of iron upon his breaſt; but, at preſent, the ſame ſentence is paſſed on him as in caſe of conviction.

When the witneſſes have given in their evidence, and the priſoner has, by himſelf or his counſel, croſs-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the ſubſtance of the evidence given againſt the priſoner, and bids them diſcharge their conſcience: when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himſelf and the reſt, declares the priſoner *guilty* or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt ariſes among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimouſly agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury ſhould die during this their confinement, the priſoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court by an officer who waits without, and the priſoner is again ſet to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in ſome doubtful caſes, when the verdict is brought in *ſpecial*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the priſoner be found guilty, he is then aſked what reaſon he can give why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy; it is changed to tranſportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction, the ſentence of death, after a ſummary account of the trial, is pronounced on the priſoner, in theſe words: *The law is, That thou ſhalt return to the place from whence thou cameſt, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou ſhalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead; and the Lord have mercy on thy ſoul!* whereupon the ſheriff is charged with the execution.

All the priſoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and diſcharged, and in ſome caſes obtain a copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law againſt their proſecutors.

OF PUNISHMENTS.] The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treaſon*, *petty treaſon*, and *felony*. The firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt; the head is then cut off, and the body quartered; after which the head is uſually fixed on ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet, with reſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to beheading: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe *.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

*Petty treaſon* is when a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. This crime is puniſhed by the offender's being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty both of this crime and of high treaſon were ſentenced to be burnt alive; but this law has been very lately repealed, and the puniſhment of burning aboliſhed.

*Felony* includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging: only murderers † are to be executed ſoon after ſentence is paſſed, and then delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there were ſome alleviating circumſtances, uſed ſometimes to be tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations; but ſince the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years; and lately ſome have been ſent to Africa, Nova Scotia, and Botany Bay.

Other crimes puniſhed by the laws are,

*Manſlaughter*, which is the unlawful killing of a perſon without premeditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when two who

* This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment, but as a remiſſion of all the parts of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after ſentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, ſo that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this caſe the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy, for the firſt time, and only burnt in the hand.

*Chance-medley* is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent; for which the offender is alſo to be burnt in the hand, unleſs the offender was doing an unlawful act; which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

*Shop-lifting*, and receiving goods, knowing them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

*Perjury*, or keeping diſorderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory and impriſonment.

*Petty-larceny*, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelve-pence, is puniſhed by whipping.

*Libelling*, uſing falſe weights and meaſures. and foreſtalling the market, are commonly puniſhed with ſtanding on the pillory.

For ſtriking, ſo as to draw blood, in a king's court, the criminal is puniſhed with loſing his right hand.

For ſtriking in Weſtminſter-hall while the courts of juſtice are ſitting, the puniſhment is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The firſt private relation of perſons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of huſband and wife: or, as moſt of our elder law books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holineſs of the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the eccleſiaſtical law; the puniſhment, therefore, or annulling of inceſtuous or other unſcriptural marriages, is the province of ſpiritual courts.

There are two kinds of divorce; the one total, the other partial. The total divorce muſt be for ſome of the canonical cauſes of impediment, and thoſe exiſting before the marriage; as conſanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecility. The iſſue of ſuch marriage, as it is thus entirely diſſolved, are baſtards.

The other kind of divorce is, when the marriage is juſt and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of diſſolving it; but, for ſome ſupervenient cauſe, it becomes improper, or impoſſible, for the parties to live together; as in the caſe of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this caſe the law allows alimony to the wife (except when, for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman for her ſupport out of the huſband's eſtate, being ſettled at the diſcretion of the eccleſiaſtical judge, on the conſideration of all the circumſtances of the caſe, and the rank and quality of the parties.

In the civil law, the huſband and the wife are conſidered as two diſtinct perſons; and may have ſeparate eſtates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore in our eccleſiaſtical courts a woman may ſue, and be ſued, without her huſband.

But though our law in general conſiders man and wife as one perſon, yet there are ſome inſtances in which ſhe is ſeparately conſidered as inferior to him, and acting by his compulſion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which caſe ſhe muſt be ſolely and ſecretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will deviſe land to her huſband, unleſs under ſpecial circumſtances; for,

at the time of making it, ſhe is ſuppoſed to be under his coercion. And ſome felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her through conſtraint of her huſband, the law excuſes her; but this extends not to treaſon or murder.

The huſband alſo (by the old, and likewiſe by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to anſwer for her miſbehaviour, the law thought it reaſonable to intruſt him with this power of reſtraining her by domeſtic chaſtiſement, in the ſame moderation that a man is allowed to correct his ſervants or children; for whom the maſter or parent is alſo liable in ſome caſes to anſwer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have ſecurity of the peace againſt her huſband; or, in return, a huſband againſt his wife: yet the lower ranks of people, who were always fond of the old common law, ſtill claim and exert their ancient privilege: and the courts of law will ſtill permit a huſband to reſtrain a wife of her liberty, in caſe of any groſs miſbehaviour.

Theſe are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may obſerve, that even the diſabilities which the wife lies under are for the moſt part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female ſex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's eccleſiaſtical revenues conſiſt in, 1. The cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and penſions, formerly ariſing from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing, due to the king from an abbey or monaſtery, and which he generally beſtowed upon favourite ſervants; and his ſending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the biſhop, or to have a penſion beſtowed upon him till the biſhop promoted him to a benefice. Theſe corodies are due of common right, but now, I believe, diſuſed. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The firſt-fruits and tenths of benefices. But ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that theſe four branches now afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts in, 1. The demeſne lands of the crown, which at preſent are contracted within a narrow compaſs. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſideration for the purchaſe of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on wine licences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His foreſts. 5. His courts of juſtice, &c. In lieu of all which, 900,000l. per annum is now granted for the ſupport of his civil liſt.

The extraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynonymous names of aids, ſubſidies, and ſupplies, and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great Britain in parliament aſſembled; who, when they have voted a ſupply to his majeſty, and ſettled the *quantum* of that ſupply, uſually reſolve themſelves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to conſider of the ways and means of raiſing the ſupply ſo voted. And in this committee, every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propoſe ſuch ſcheme of taxation as he thinks will be leaſt detrimental to the public. The reſolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the houſe) are in general eſteemed to be (as it were) final and concluſive. For, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no moneyed man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready

caſh, if the propoſed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the houſe of commons, though no law be yet paſſed to eſtabliſh it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cider, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandiſe exported or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or inland impoſition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The poſt-office, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions.

The groſs receipt of theſe annual and permanent taxes, including the balances of the preceding year, amounted in the year 1797, according to the report of the Select Committee of Finance, to the following ſums:

| | £. | s. | d. | Charges of management. £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cuſtoms | 6,527,882 | 19 | 3¼ | 416,627 | 2 | 11¼ |
| Exciſe including malt annual | 12,038,218 | 5 | 9 | 535,128 | 1 | 10 |
| Stamps | 2,262,568 | 12 | 8 | 100,903 | 13 | 6 |
| Land and aſſeſſed taxes | 3,485,341 | 16 | 10 | 150,906 | 1 | 7¼ |
| Salt | 548,333 | 0 | 6½ | 33,301 | 4 | 2½ |
| Poſt-office | 1,109,179 | 1 | 10 | 296,279 | 4 | 5½ |
| 1s. in the pound on penſions | 36,038 | 14 | 10¼ | 578 | 2 | 6 |
| 6d. in the pound on ditto | 50,538 | 6 | 3 | 841 | 14 | 1 |
| Hackney-coaches | 26,365 | 13 | 1½ | 2,255 | 0 | 11½ |
| Hawkers and pedlars | 8,219 | 9 | 6 | 2,915 | 13 | 0 |

The net produce of all theſe taxes, deducting the balances of the preceding year, repayments on over entries, drawbacks, bounties in nature of drawbacks, and other allowances on the cuſtoms, exciſe, ſtamps, and ſalt, is ſtated, by the ſame committee, to have amounted, in that year, to 18,720,093l.; and the whole of the permanent revenue to 20,508,000l. How theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated is next to be conſidered. And this is, firſt and principally, to the payment of the *intereſt* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehenſive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it muſt firſt be premiſed, that, after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics, the expenſes of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to an unuſual degree; inſomuch that it was not thought adviſable to raiſe all the expenſes of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leſt the unaccuſtomed weight of them ſhould create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property; transferable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity; a ſyſtem which ſeems to have had its original in the ſtate of Florence, A. D. 1344; which government then owed about

60,000l. ſterling; and being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate ſum, called, metaphorically, a mount or bank; the ſhares whereof were transferable like our ſtocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deſerve that name; and the example then ſet has been ſo cloſely followed ſince, that the capital of the funded debt, Britiſh and foreign, on the 1ſt of February 1799, amounted to 465,152,531l. and the annual charge of it to 19,552,037l.

Of this funded debt the commiſſioners for buying up the national debt had redeemed, on the 1ſt of February 1799, 37,381,771l. The unfunded debt, at the ſame time, amounted to 15,295,674l.

To check, in ſome meaſure, the too rapid accumulation of a debt already ſo enormous, a part of the ſupplies for the years 1798 and 1799 have been raiſed within the year. In 1798, a voluntary ſubſcription was entered into for the ſervice of government, which produced about a million and a half; and the taxes called the aſſeſſed taxes were trebled, and in ſome inſtances quadrupled, with allowance of relief in certain caſes: theſe produced about five millions. In the year 1799, an act paſſed for levying a tenth of all income, upwards of 200l. per annum, with a tax, according to a certain ſcale, on all income from 200l. to 60l. per annum. The expected produce of this tax is eſtimated at ten millions; but by the returns already made, it ſeems likely to produce little more than two-thirds of that ſum.

The total expenditure of the year 1797, for the intereſt of the public debt, the civil liſt, the army, navy, foreign loans and remittances, penſions, bounties, extraordinary and ſecret ſervices, &c. amounted, according to the report of the Select Committee of Finance, to 52,105,603l. 18s. $2\frac{3}{4}$d.; and the total of the ordinary revenue and extraordinary reſources, including a lottery and a loan of twenty-ſeven millions, to 55,020,890l. 1s. $0\frac{1}{4}$d.

It is indiſputably certain, that the preſent magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greateſt inconveniences. For, firſt, the enormous taxes that are raiſed upon the neceſſaries of life, for the payment of the intereſt of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures, by raiſing the price as well of the artificer's ſubſiſtence, as of the raw material, and of courſe, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itſelf. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie for the intereſt, or elſe it is made an argument to grant them unreaſonable privileges, in order to induce them to reſide here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to ſubjects only, it is then charging the active and induſtrious ſubject, who pays his ſhare of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Laſtly, and principally, it weakens the internal ſtrength of a ſtate, by anticipating thoſe reſources which ſhould be reſerved to defend it in caſe of neceſſity. The intereſt we now pay for our debts would be nearly ſufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could require. And if our anceſtors in king William's time had annually paid, ſo long as their exigencies laſted, even a leſs ſum than we now annually raiſe upon their account, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to and ſettled upon their poſterity in the time of peace, and might have been eaſed the inſtant the exigence was over.

The produce of the ſeveral taxes before mentioned were originally ſeparate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advanced on each

ſeveral tax, and for them only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order to avoid confuſion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of theſe ſeparate funds, by uniting and blending them together, ſuperadding the faith of parliament for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*; the *general fund*, ſo called from ſuch union and addition; and the *South-Sea fund*; being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the intereſt of ſuch part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants: whereby the ſeparate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual ſecurities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annuities as were formerly charged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of the legiſlature being moreover engaged to ſupply any caſual deficiencies.

The cuſtoms, exciſes, and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and conſumption, muſt neceſſarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been conſiderably more than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them. The ſurpluſſes, therefore, of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South-Sea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 Geo. I. c. 7, to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the *ſinking-fund*, becauſe originally deſtined to be held ſacred, and to be applied inviolably to the redemption of the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other entire duties, granted in ſubſequent years; and the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of, the ſinking-fund. However, the net ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount, annually, to a very conſiderable ſum. For, as the intereſt on the national debt has been at ſeveral times reduced (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or be paid their principal), the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt needs be extremely large. On this ſinking-fund depends, in a great meaſure, our hopes of diſcharging or moderating our incumbrances; and therefore the prudent application of the large ſums, now ariſing from this fund, is a point of the utmoſt importance, and well worthy the ſerious attention of parliament.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, ſeveral encroachments were made upon the ſinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it by ſir Robert Walpole, under pretence of eaſing the landed intereſt. The practice of alienating the ſinking fund being thus begun, has continued; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged; and every ſubſequent adminiſtration has broken in upon it, thus converting this excellent expedient for ſaving the kingdom, into a ſupply for the worſt purpoſes.

In ſome years, the ſinking fund has produced from two to three millions *per annum*, and if only 1,212,000l. of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts, from the year 1733, inſtead of only eight millions and a half paid off by it, as is the caſe at preſent, one hundred and ſixty millions would have been paid, and the nation have been extricated and ſaved. Different ſchemes have been formed for paying the public debts: but no method can be ſo expeditious and effectual as an unalienable ſinking fund, as this money is improved at *compound intereſt*, and therefore in the moſt perfect manner; but money procured by a loan bears only ſimple intereſt. "A nation

therefore, whenever it applies the income of ſuch a fund to current expenſes rather than the redemption of its debts, chooſes to loſe the benefit of compound intereſt in order to avoid paying ſimple intereſt, and the loſs in this caſe is equal to the difference between the increaſe of money at compound and ſimple intereſt *."

No permanent proviſion had ever been made for the progreſſive and permanent payment of this immenſe debt until 1786; when parliament had the wiſdom and the firmneſs to paſs an act for veſting unalienably, in commiſſioners, the ſum of one million annually: in which act every poſſible precaution was taken that could be deviſed for preventing the ſurplus from being diverted, at any future time, and for carrying to the account of the commiſſioners, for the purpoſes of the act, the intereſt of ſuch ſtock as ſhould be purchaſed, and ſuch temporary annuities as ſhould fall in under the proviſions of this act. 37,381,771l. of the capital of the debt had been purchaſed in February 1799.

Before any part of the *aggregate fund* (the ſurpluſſes whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the ſinking-fund) can be applied to diminiſh the principal of the public debt, it ſtands mortgaged by parliament to raiſe an annual ſum for the maintenance of the king's houſehold and the civil liſt. For this purpoſe, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the exciſe and cuſtoms, the poſt-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown-lands, the profit ariſing from courts of juſtice (which articles include all the hereditary revenue of the crown), and alſo a clear annuity of 120,000l. in money, were ſettled on the king for life, for the ſupport of his majeſty's houſehold, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And as the amount of theſe ſeveral branches were uncertain (though in the laſt reign they were computed to have ſometimes raiſed almoſt a million), if they did not riſe annually to 800,000l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his preſent majeſty having, ſoon after his acceſſion, ſpontaneouſly ſignified his conſent, that his own hereditary revenues might be ſo diſpoſed of, as might beſt conduce to the utility and ſatisfaction of the public, and having accepted the limited ſum of 800,000l. (now increaſed to 900,000l.) per annum, for the ſupport of his civil liſt, the ſaid hereditary and other revenues are now carried into and made part of the aggregrte fund; and the aggregate fund is

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly ſhows what this difference is:—"One penny put out at our Saviour's birth, at 5 per cent. compound-intereſt, would, in the year 1781, have increaſed to a greater ſum than would be contained in 200,000,000 of earths, all ſolid gold; but if put out to ſimple intereſt, it at the ſame time would have amounted to no more than ſeven ſhillings and ſixpence. All governments that alienate funds deſtined for reimburſements, chooſe to improve money in the *laſt* rather than the *firſt* of theſe ways." He adds: "A million borrowed annually, for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent. ſtock, if diſcharged at 60l. in money for every 100l. ſtock; and in 40 years more, without any farther aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A ſurplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would diſcharge the ſame ſums in the ſame periods.

"In ſhort, ſo neceſſary is it at preſent to expedite, by every poſſible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the ſurplus which can be obtained for a ſinking-fund be what it will, an addition to it, by annual loans, will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency, and a better chance of ſaving the kingdom.—The increaſe of taxes, which ſuch a meaſure muſt occaſion, would be ſo inconſiderable and ſo gradual, as to be ſcarcely perceptible; and, at the ſame time, it would manifeſt ſuch a determined reſolution in our rulers, to reduce our debts, as might have the happieſt influence on public credit."

charged with the payment of the annuity to the crown. The expenſes defrayed by the civil liſt are thoſe that, in any ſhape, relate to civil government, as the expenſes of the houſehold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expenſes, or privy-purſe, and other very numerous outgoings, as ſecret-ſervice money, penſions, and other bounties. Theſe, ſometimes, have ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpoſe, that application has been made to parliament to diſcharge the debts contracted on the civil liſt, which is properly the whole of the king's revenue, in his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and diſtributed again in the name and by the officers of the crown.

The amount of the capitals and intereſt of the different public funds, in July 1799, may be ſeen in the following page.

| FUNDS. | Capital of each ſtock. | Annual Intereſt. | Funds purchaſed by the Commiſſioners, from Auguſt 1786, to July 5, 1799. Principal. | Intereſt. | Transfer Days at the Bank, &c. | Divid. on each Fund when due. | Holidays. | UNFUNDED DEBT to January 5, 1799. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | £. s. d. | £. s. d. | £. | £. s. d. | | | | | £. |
| 5 per cent. navy annuities - - | 28,125,582 19 7 | 1,406,279 2 10 | - - | - - - | Mon. Wed. & Frid. | Jan. 5. and July 5. | Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 30. | Loan of the year 1797 - - | 832,400 |
| 3 per cent. conſol | 257,617,570 14 3¼ | 7,728,527 2 5 | - - | - - - | Tu. Wed. Th. & Fr. | | Feb. 2, 24. | | |
| 3 per cent. 1726 | 1,000,000 0 0 | 30,000 0 0 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. & Thurſ. | | March 25. | | |
| South-Sea Stock | 3,662,784 8 6 | 128,197 9 1 | - - | - - - | Mon. Wed. & Fri. | | April 23, 25. | Borrowed of the Bank, for the ſervice of 1798 - - | 3,000,000 |
| 3 per cent. new S. Sea annuities - | 8,494,830 2 10 | 254,844 18 1 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat. | | May 1, 29. | | |
| 3 per cent. 1751 | 1,919,600 0 0 | 57,588 0 0 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. & Thurſ. | | June 4, 11, 24, 29. | | |
| India Stock - - | 6,000,000 0 0 | 630,000 0 0 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat. | | July 25. | | |
| 5 per cent. 1797 | 20,124,843 15 0 | 1,006,242 3 9 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. Thurſ. & Fri. | Apr. 5. and Oct. 5. | Aug. 1, 12, 24. | | |
| 4 per cent. conſol. | 45,269,859 17 2 | 1,810,794 7 10 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat. | | Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. | Vote of Credit in 1798 - - | 1,000,000 |
| 3 per cent. redu. | 74,023,948 16 4 | 2,220,718 9 3 | - - | - - - | Wed. Thurſ. & Fri. | | Oct. 18, 25, 26, 28. | | |
| 3 per cent. old S. Sea annuities | 11,907,470 2 7 | 357,224 2 1 | - - | - - - | Mon. Wed. & Frid. | | Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 | Additional Sum - | 1,489,700 |
| Bank Stock - - | 11,642,400 0 0 | 814,968 0 0 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. Thurſ. & Frid | | Dec. 21, 25, 26, 27, 28 | Navy Debt | 5,556,034 |
| Long annuities * | - - - - | 1,017,405 19 2 | - - | - - - | Mon. Wed. & Sat | | Moveable. | Army Arrears - - | 1,301,637 |
| Annuities 1778 and 1779 † - | - - - - | 418,333 0 11 | - - | - - - | Mon. Wed. & Sat. | | Shrove Tu. Aſh. W. Good Friday. Eſt. M. T. & Ho. T. Whit. M. & Tu. | Barracks - | 106,893 |
| | | | | | | | | Ordnance | 883,995 |
| 3 per cent. Imp. annuities - - | 7,502,633 6 8 | 225,079 0 0 | - - | - - - | Mon. Wed. & Frid. | May 1, and Nov. 1. | | Civil Eſtabliſhments, Treaſury Bills, &c. | 1,075,015 |
| Imp. annuities for 25 years ‡ | - - - | 230,000 0 0 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat. | | | | |
| 5 per cent. Iriſh annuities - - | 1,900,000 0 0 | 95,000 0 0 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat. | Mar. 25 and Sep. 29. | | | £. 15,295,674 |
| Iriſh annuities for 15 years § | - - - - | 34,704 3 4 | - - | - - - | Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat. | | | | |
| £. | 479,191,524 2 11¼ | 18,465,905 18 9 | 40,511,253 | 1,480,893 2 ‖ | | | | | |

N. B. Dividends paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, and 1 to 3.—Transfers 11 to 1.—Dividends at the S. S. and India Houſe, from 9 to 12.—Transfers from 12 to 1.

* Fall in January 1860. The original annuity was for 99 years.
† Theſe fall in 1808.
‡ Theſe expire May 1, 1819.
§ Theſe expire in 1809 and 1810.
‖ Redeemed likewiſe, by Land-Tax, 7,775,328l. 1s. 2d.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The *military ſtate* includes the whole of the ſoldiery, or ſuch perſons as are peculiarly appointed among the reſt of the people, for the ſafeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch, no man ſhould take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms know no ſuch ſtate as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons.

It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that king Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe who, by their military tenures, were bound to perform forty days' ſervice in the field, the ſtatute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace; and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed by the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice; but both this and the former proviſions were repealed in the reign of James I. While theſe continued in force, it was uſual, from time to time, for our princes to iſſue commiſſions of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order) the inhabitants of every diſtrict; and the form of the commiſſion of array was ſettled in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his ſhire, but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in uſe; for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recogniſe the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination; and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia laws; the general ſcheme of which is, to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for five years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of an invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe to be ſent out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times, and their diſcipline in

§ Theſe expire in 1809 and 1810.
‖ Redeemed likewiſe, by Land-Tax, 7,775,328*l.* 11*s.* 2*d.*

* Fall in January 1860. The original annuity was for 99 years.
† Theſe fall in 1808.
‡ Theſe expire May 1, 1819.

general is liberal and eaſy: but when drawn out in actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence, and which the ſtatutes declare is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom.

But as the mode of keeping ſtanding armies has univerſally prevailed over all Europe of late years, it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. The land forces of theſe kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the Eaſt Indies, and America; but in time of war, the number is much greater. The whole of the regular force in the year 1798, amounted to 78,627 men; and the militia and fencibles, including 6,011 fencible cavalry, to 62,202 men, making in all of regular and irregular force 140,829 men. To govern this body of troops, an annual act of parliament paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law-martial for their government.

The MARITIME ſtate is nearly related to the former, though much more agreeable to the principles of our free conſtitution. The royal navy of England has ever been its greateſt defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland; an army, from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, even from the earlieſt ages. To ſo much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the Laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and ſubſtruction of all their marine conſtitutions, was confeſſedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the iſle of Oleron, on the coaſt of France, then part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England. And yet, ſo vaſtly inferior were our anceſtors in this point to the preſent age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, ſir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt that the royal navy of England then conſiſted of 33 ſhips. The preſent condition of our marine is in a great meaſure owing to the ſalutary proviſions of the ſtatute called the navigation act; whereby the conſtant increaſe of Engliſh ſhipping and ſeamen was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably neceſſary. The moſt beneficial ſtatute for the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms, is that navigation act; the rudiments of which were firſt framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the ſugar iſlands, which were diſaffected to the parliament, and ſtill held out for Charles II. by ſtopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the ſame time to clip the wings of thoſe our opulent and aſpiring neighbours. This prohibited all ſhips of foreign nations from trading with any Engliſh plantations without licence from the council of ſtate. In 1651, the prohibition was extended alſo to the mother country; and no goods were ſuffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies in any other than Engliſh bottoms, or in the ſhips of that Euro-

pean nation, of which the merchandiſe imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Reſtoration, the former proviſions were continued by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the maſters and three-fourths of the mariners ſhall alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.

The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, uſually hath amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they formerly amounted to about 30,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, to above 100,000, including marines. The vote of parliament for the ſervice of the years 1798 and 1799 was for 120,000 ſeamen, including marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours. Each ſquadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding our favourable ſituation for a maritime power, it was not until the vaſt armament ſent to ſubdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully ſenſible of its true intereſt and natural ſtrength, which it has ſince ſo happily cultivated.

We may ſafely affirm, that the Britiſh navy is able to cope with all the other fleets of Europe. The brilliant victories of lords St. Vincent, Duncan, and Nelſon, and the late ſurrender of the whole Dutch fleet lying in the Texel, have eſtabliſhed the unrivalled ſuperiority of Britain over all the maritime powers of Europe. In the courſe of the preſent war ſhe has taken from her enemies, including the Dutch ſhips ſurrendered for the Stadtholder, 83 ſhips of the line, 111 frigates, 223 other ſhips of war, and 713 privateers, amounting in the whole to 1132 ſhips. At the beginning of the year 1800, the Britiſh naval force conſiſted of 144 ſhips of the line, in commiſſion, 22 fifty-gun ſhips, 200 frigates, and 292 other ſhips of war: in the whole 658 ſhips; and including receiving ſhips, ſhips in ordinary and building, 902, of which 224 were of the line.

We ſhall cloſe this account of the military and maritime ſtrength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea-officers and ſailors are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament, which anſwers the annual military act that is paſſed for the government of the army, yet neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances, of no great moment. The ſoldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate to enable him to preſerve the peace againſt all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions is to take his directions from the magiſtrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. Thoſe civil magiſtrates who underſtand the principles of the conſtitution are however extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, or upon any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with good reaſon; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded againſt with too much caution.

Coins.] In Great Britain, money is computed by pounds, ſhillings, and pence; twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound; which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas, and half guineas; the ſilver, of crowns, half crowns, ſhillings, ſixpences, groats, and even down to a ſilver penny; and the

copper, of halfpence and farthings; to which have lately been added penny and two-penny pieces. In a country like England, where the intrinſic value of ſilver is nearly equal, and in ſome coins, crown pieces particularly, ſuperior to the nominal, the coinage of ſilver money is a matter of great conſequence; and yet the preſent ſtate of the national currency ſeems to demand a new coinage of ſhillings and ſix-pences; the intrinſic value of the latter being in many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public loſing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Beſides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the tower of London, but theſe are not generally current; nor is any ſilver coin that is lower than ſix-pence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The title of the king of England is, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The deſignation of the kings of England was formerly his or her Grace, or Highneſs, till Henry VIII. to put himſelf on a footing with the emperor Charles V. aſſumed that of Majeſty; but the old deſignation was not aboliſhed till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign. The title of Defender of the Faith, above mentioned, was given to Henry VIII. by the pope, on account of a book written by the king againſt Luther and the Reformation. Beſides the titles already given, the king of Great Britain has others from his German dominions, as Elector of Hanover, Duke of Brunſwick Lunenburg, &c.

Since the acceſſion of the preſent royal family of Great Britain, anno 1714, the royal achievement is marſhalled as follows: quarterly, in the firſt grand quarter, *Mars, three lions paſſant guardant, in pale Sol*, the imperial enſigns of England, impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant, within a double treſſure flowered, and counter-flowered with fleurs-de-lis, Mars.* The ſecond quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol.* The third, the enſigns of Ireland, which is *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed Luna.* And the fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions paſſant guardant, Sol,* for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is *Sol, ſemee of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter*; having ancient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horſe currant, Luna, enté* (or grafted) *in baſe: and in a ſhield ſur tout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhow his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almoſt every king of England had a particular badge or cogniſance; ſometimes a white hart, ſometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is ſaid Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his miſtreſſes: and ſometimes a portcullis, which was that of the houſe of Lancaſter, many of the princes of which were born in the caſtle of Beaufort. The white roſe was the bearing of the houſe of York; and that of Lancaſter, by way of contradiſtinction, adopted the red. The thiſtle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very ſignificant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit*, "None ſhall provoke me unpuniſhed."

The titles of the king's eldeſt ſon are, Prince of Wales, duke of Corn-

wall and Rothſay, earl of Cheſter, electoral prince of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the Iſles, great-ſteward of Scotland, and captain-general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the moſt honourable of any in the world, was inſtituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, who is always king or queen of England, of 25 companions, called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, ſuppoſed to be the tutelar ſaint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, ſuſpended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but ſince the latter end of James I. now croſſes their bodies from their ſhoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was deſigned as an enſign of unity and combination; on it are embroidered the words, *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe*, "Evil to him who evil thinks."

Knights of the BATH, ſo called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are ſuppoſed to be inſtituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399: but the order ſeems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other ſolemn occaſions, and they wear a ſcarlet ribband hanging from the left ſhoulder, with an enamelled medal, the badge of the order, a roſe iſſuing from the dexter ſide of a ſceptre, and a thiſtle from the ſiniſter, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in unum*, "Three joined in one." This order being diſcontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 8th of May, 1725; and the month following, eighteen noblemen, and as many commoners of the firſt rank, were inſtalled knights of the order with great ceremony, at Weſtminſter, where the place of inſtalment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are ſplendid and ſhowy, and the number of knights is undetermined. The biſhop of Rocheſter is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewiſe a regiſter and other officers.

The order of the THISTLE, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account of that country; as is alſo the order of St. Patrick, newly inſtituted for Ireland, in our account of that kingdom.

The origin of the Engliſh peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can ſcarcely be ſaid to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counſellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were inſtituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulſter in Ireland: but at preſent their number amounts to 700.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback; a rank of no mean eſtimation in ancient armies, and entitling the parties themſelves to the appellation of *Sir*. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; ſuch as thoſe of *bannerets*, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like; but they are now diſuſed. Indeed, in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portſmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular

badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the ſupporters.

It is ſomewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *eſquire*, which formerly ſignified a perſon bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called Armigeri. This title denoted any perſon, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at preſent applied promiſcuouſly to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman, without trade; and even a tradeſman, if he is a juſtice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, ſo late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of ſilver ſpurs. Gower the poet appears, from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an eſquire by creation. Serjeants at law, and other ſerjeants belonging to the king's houſehold, juſtices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and phyſic, take place of other eſquires; and it is remarkable, that all the ſons of dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than eſquires, though commonly deſignated by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now beſtowed ſo promiſcuouſly, is the root of all Engliſh honour; for every nobleman is preſumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

History.] It is generally agreed that the firſt inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that ſettled on the oppoſite ſhore; a ſuppoſition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt, meditated the conqueſt of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæſar wrote the hiſtory of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vaſt difficulties, and attended by ſuch advantages over the iſlanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Cæſar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indeciſive; nor did the Romans receive the leaſt advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the iſland than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæſar's deſcent, were governed in the time of war by a political confederacy, of which Caſſibelan, whoſe territories lay in Hertfordſhire, and ſome of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for ſome time.

In their manner of life, as deſcribed by Cæſar, and the beſt authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly ſowed corn, though perhaps they chiefly ſubſiſted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was ſkins,—and their fortifications, beams of wood. They were incredibly dexterous in the management of their chariots; and they fought with lances, darts, and ſwords. Women ſometimes led their armies to the field, and were recogniſed as ſovereigns in their particular diſtricts. They favoured the primogeniture or ſeniority in their ſucceſſion to royalty, but ſet it aſide on the ſmalleſt inconvenience attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluiſh or greeniſh caſt; and they are ſaid to have had figures of animals and heavenly bodies on their ſkins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themſelves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife

was in common to them all; but her children belonged to the original huſband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæſar, about forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, undertook an expedition in perſon, in which he ſeems to have been ſucceſsful, againſt Britain. His conqueſts, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, though a woman, made noble ſtands againſt the Romans. The former was taken priſoner after a deſperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the hiſtories of the times. Boadicea being oppreſſed in a manner that diſgraces the Roman name, and defeated, diſdained to ſurvive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after ſubduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland, where his ſucceſſors had no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this iſland, they erected thoſe walls which have been often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and cuſtoms, became familiar in Britain. There ſeems to be no great foundation for this aſſertion; and it is more probable that the Romans conſidered Britain chiefly as a nurſery for their armies abroad, on account of the ſuperior ſtrength of body and courage of the inhabitants when diſciplined. That this was the caſe, appears plainly enough from the defenceleſs ſtate of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that iſland. I have already taken notice, that, during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a ſtate of great vaſſalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave reſiſtance againſt theſe tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unqueſtionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no ſtruggle they made in later times, for their independency at home, notwithſtanding the many favourable opportunities that preſented themſelves. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this iſland, aſſiſted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the ſouthern Britons retired northwards): but they appear to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the ſouthern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of thoſe barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itſelf *, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the Britiſh youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire; and that they might leave the iſland with a good grace, they aſſiſted the Britons in rebuilding with ſtone the wall of Severus between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, which they lined with forts and watch towers; and having done this good office, took their laſt farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been maſters of the moſt fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invaſion of Julius Cæſar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the iſland finally deſerted by the Roman

*. See the Introduction.

legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inſpire. The poor Britons, like a helpleſs family deprived of their parent and protector, already ſubdued by their own fears, had again recourſe to Rome, and ſent over their miſerable epiſtle for relief (ſtill upon record), which was addreſſed in theſe words: *To Aëtius, thrice conſul: The groans of the Britons*; and after other lamentable complaints, ſaid, *That the barbarians drove them to the ſea, and the ſea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of periſhing by the ſword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any ſuccours from that ſide, they began to conſider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Gildas, who was himſelf a Briton, deſcribes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful ſtrains, and gives ſome confuſed hints of their officers, and the names of ſome of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Dammonii*, by whoſe advice the Britons ſtruck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now called the Engliſh Chaſnel; and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progreſs of the Scots and Picts, and had the iſland of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their own country was ſo populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain ſo agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time Hengiſt and Horſa began to meditate a ſettlement for themſelves; and freſh ſupplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent ſtruggle of near 150 years, they ſubdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and their deſcendants ſtill remain.

Literature at this time in England was ſo rude, that we know but little of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters; and public tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within the deſign of this work to relate the ſeparate hiſtory of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is ſufficient to ſay, that the pope in Auſtin's time ſupplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popiſh clergy took care to keep their kings and laity in the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by prieſts and monks, who, as they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finiſhed their days; no leſs than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner; and among them was Ina, king of the Weſt-Saxons, though in other reſpects he was a wiſe and brave prince. The bounty of thoſe Anglo-Saxon kings to the See of Rome was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's-pence, becauſe paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad vincula*, Auguſt 1ſt *.

* This tax was impoſed at firſt for the ſupport of a college at Rome, for the education of Engliſh youth, founded by Ina, king of Weſſex, under the name of *Rome-Scot*; but in proceſs of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his ſucceſſors.

Under all thoſe diſadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in compariſon of the nations on the continent; becauſe they were free from the Saracens, or ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the Eaſt upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very conſiderable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Weſſex, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000l. ſterling in the year 694. England, therefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but ſuperſtitious Bede, about the year 740, compoſed his church hiſtory of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldeſt and moſt authentic monuments of hiſtory that any nation can produce. Architecture, ſuch as it was, with ſtone and glaſs working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was ſerved in ſilver plate. It muſt however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouſes are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, moſt of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldeſt remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in Britain. On the ſubmiſſion of the Northumbrians in the year 827, he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwiſe Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany. Egbert had been obliged, by ſtate jealouſies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the perſecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the Weſt Saxons. Egbert acquired, at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and therefore ſoon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own perſon, but without ſubduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-lond or England; but there is reaſon to believe that ſome part of England continued ſtill to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a ſmall tribute to Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Wincheſter, his chief reſidence.

Egbert was ſucceeded by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. By this time England had become a ſcene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions; and Ethelwolf, after ſome time bravely oppoſing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngeſt ſon, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of which are ſtill remaining) are ſo prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they ſhow his intellect to have been diſturbed by his devotion, or that he was guided by the arts of Swithin, biſhop of Wincheſter. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his ſons (Athelſtan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert: but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the ſurviving ſon, left his kingdom, in 860, to his brother Ethelred; in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-coaſt, and the fineſt counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in hiſtory. He fought ſeven

battles with the Danes with various ſucceſs; and when defeated, he found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon ſtate of diſtreſs, being forced to live in the diſguiſe of a cow-herd; but ſtill he kept up a ſecret correſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together; and by their aſſiſtance he gave the Danes many ſignal overthrows, till at laſt he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had been ſettled in it, to ſwear obedience to his government; even part of Wales courted his protection; ſo that he was probably the moſt powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raiſing a maritime power in England, by which he ſecured her coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundred, and tythings: or rather he revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fallen into diſuſe by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was not only a ſcholar, but an author; and he tells us, that upon his acceſſion to the throne he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read Engliſh, or an eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and brick building into general uſe in palaces as well as churches; though it is certain that his ſubjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may ſeem incredible to modern times: but he had merchants who traded in East-India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome of their gems were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Octher, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of the coaſt of Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia; and he tells the king, in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed along the Norway coaſt, ſo far north as commonly the whale-hunters uſed to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and uſeful allies in the two Scotch kings, his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, againſt the Danes. He is ſaid to have fought no leſs than fifty-ſix pitched battles. He was inexorable againſt his corrupt judges, whom he uſed to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely amiable and heroic, that he is juſtly diſtinguiſhed with the epithet of the Great.

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invaſions. He died in the year 925, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. This prince was ſuch an encourager of commerce, as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, ſhould be put upon a footing with a *thane* or *nobleman* of the firſt rank. He cauſed the Scriptures to be tranſlated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage; and we find by his laws, that archbiſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of coining money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vaſſals ſtill kept a footing in thoſe counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, in which he was generally ſucceſsful, and died in 941. The reigns of his ſucceſſors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or diſgraced by the influence of prieſts. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is ſaid to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings, his vaſſals,

he ſitting at the helm; but, like his predeceſſors, he was the ſlave of prieſts, particularly St. Dunſtan. His reign, however, was pacific and happy, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tyne. He was ſucceeded in 975 by his eldeſt ſon Edward, who was barbarouſly murdered by his ſtep-mother, whoſe ſon Ethelred, by the aid of prieſts, mounted the throne in 978. The Engliſh nation, at this time, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became poſſeſſed of the fineſt parts of the country, while their countrymen made ſometimes dreadful deſcents in the weſtern parts. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the firſt land-tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made ſuch ſettlements in England, that Ethelred conſented to a general maſſacre of them by the Engliſh; but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind were undoubtedly made in particular counties; but they ſerved only to enrage the Daniſh king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen and two ſons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, ſtyled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was ſucceeded by his ſon Canute the Great: but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vaſt army, and obliged Edmund Ironſide (ſo called for his great bodily ſtrength), Ethelred's ſon, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being aſſaſſinated, Canute ſucceeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his ſon, Harold Harefoot, did nothing memorable; and his ſucceſſor Hardicanute was ſo degenerate a prince, that the Daniſh royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confeſſor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, by being deſcended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Upon the death of the Confeſſor, in the year 1066, Harold, ſon to Goodwin, earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a baſtard, was then in the unrivalled poſſeſſion of that great duchy, and reſolved to aſſert his right to the crown of England. For that purpoſe he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vaſſals, to join him, and made liberal promiſes to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to aſſiſt him effectually. By theſe means he collected 40,000 of the braveſt and moſt regular troops in Europe; and while Harold was embarraſſed with the freſh invaſions from the Danes, William landed in England without oppoſition. Harold, returning from the north, encountered William at the place now called Battle, which took its name from that event, near Haſtings in Suſſex, and a moſt bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

We have very particular accounts of the value of proviſions and manufactures in thoſe days; a palfrey coſt 1s.; an acre of land (according to biſhop Fleetwood in his Chronicon. Pretioſum) 1s.; a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100s.; but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which thoſe ſhillings bore to the preſent ſtandard of money, though many ingenious treatiſes have been written on that head. A ſheep was eſtimated at 1s., an ox was computed at 6s., a cow at 4s., a man at 3l. The board-wages of a child the firſt year was 8s. The tenants of Shireburn were obliged at their choice to pay either 6d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much

uſed. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceaſed. Entails were ſometimes practiſed in thoſe times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons we can ſay little, but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unſkilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to ſubmiſſion under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and diſorder. Even ſo low as the reign of Canute, they ſold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their beſt quality was their military courage, which yet was not ſupported by diſcipline or conduct. Even the Norman hiſtorians, notwithſtanding the low ſtate of the arts in their own country, ſpeak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invaſion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conqueſt put the people in a ſituation of receiving ſlowly from abroad all the rudiments of ſcience and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated ſtate might be owing to the clergy, who always diſcouraged manufactures.

We are however to diſtinguiſh between the ſecular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magiſtrates. The latter depended upon the See of Rome, and directed the conſcience of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often ſanguinary. A great part of the Saxon barbariſm was likewiſe owing to the Daniſh invaſions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidſt all thoſe defects, public and perſonal liberty were well underſtood and guarded by the Saxon inſtitutions; and we owe to them at this day the moſt valuable privileges of the Engliſh ſubject.

The loſs which both ſides ſuffered at the battle of Haſtings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors ſay, that Harold was ſo impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, ſo that the advantage of numbers was on the ſide of the Norman; and, indeed the death of Harold ſeems to have decided the day; and William, with very little farther difficulty, took poſſeſſion of the throne, and made a conſiderable alteration in the conſtitution of England, by converting lands into knights' fees *, which are ſaid to have amounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great perſons who had aſſiſted him in his conqueſt, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave, for inſtance, to one of his barons the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almoſt independent of the crown; and here, according to ſome hiſtorians, we have the riſe of the feudal law in England. William found it no eaſy matter to keep poſſeſſion of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his ſiſter, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conſpiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, eſpecially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's ſiſter; but not without exerciſing horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the ſtone ſquare tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and diſarmed the old inhabitants; in ſhort, he attempted every thing poſſible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution;

* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee; and when Doomſday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

though, at his coronation, he took the ſame oath that uſed to be taken by the ancient Saxon king.

He cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands in England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confeſſor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains or ſervile tenants, ſlaves, and live-ſtock, upon each eſtate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomſday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repoſe of this fortunate and victorious king was diſturbed, in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now aſſumed the government, as ſovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the riſe of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern hiſtory. William, ſeeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his uſual vigour: and with incredible celerity, tranſporting a brave Engliſh army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious; but died before he had finiſhed the war, in the year 1087, the ſixty-firſt year of his age, and twenty-firſt of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

By the Norman conqueſt England not only loſt the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but alſo her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland; where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they eſtabliſhed themſelves; and, what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or Engliſh, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conqueſt, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the acceſſion of ſo much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans, by the conqueſt, gained much of the Engliſh land and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewiſe gained much by the great increaſe of naval power, and multitude of ſhips, wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourſe between England and the continent, gave us an increaſe of trade and commerce, and of treaſure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared ſoon afterwards. England, by the conqueſt, gained likewiſe a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. For the dominion of the narrow ſeas ſeem naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to thoſe who poſſeſs the banks or coaſts on both ſides; and thus the former title was confirmed by ſo long a coaſt as that of Normandy on one ſide, and of England on the other ſide of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel, though we have long ago loſt all our poſſeſſions in France, we have continued to defend and maintain by the bravery of our ſeamen, and the ſuperior ſtrength of our navy to any other power.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of England was diſputed between the Conqueror's ſons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewiſe hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother; and, conſequently, he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers and rebellious ſubjects. About this time the cruſades of the Holy Land began; and Robert,

who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matters with William for a ſum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter; but was accidentally killed, as he was hunting in New Foreſt in Hampſhire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

This prince built Weſtminſter-hall, as it now ſtands, and added ſeveral works to the tower, which he ſurrounded with a wall and a ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the ſea, which overflowed great part of earl Goodwin's eſtate in Kent, and formed thoſe ſhallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin-Sands.

He was ſucceeded by his brother, Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be ſaid to have purchaſed the throne; firſt, by his brother's treaſures, which he ſeized at Wincheſter; ſecondly by a charter, in which he reſtored his ſubjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and, thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign, in a great meaſure, reſtored the clergy to their influence in the ſtate; and they formed, as it were, a ſeparate body, dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulſions in England. Henry, partly by force, and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his brother Robert's perſon, and duchy of Normandy; and, with the moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; in the mean while, quieting his conſcience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody, but ſucceſsful war, with France; and, before his death, he ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter, the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit, in the ſeventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the crown of England was claimed and ſeized by Stephen, earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her ſon were then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by his brother the biſhop of Wincheſter, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown dependent, as it were, upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle David, king of Scotland; and a worthy ſubject in her natural brother Robert, Earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party before her ſon grew up. A long and bloody war enſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141; and, being carried before Matilda, ſhe ſcornfully upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak: the clergy were bold and ambitious; and, when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, were an over-match for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his acceſſion: and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen, having been exchanged for the

earl of Glouceſter, who had been taken priſoner likewiſe, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 caſtles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal ſubjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough adviſed to attempt to force them into compliance with his will, by declaring his ſon Euſtace heir-apparent to the kingdom; and this exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was ſon to the empreſs; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This meaſure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehenſive of a ſecond conqueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay-ariſtocracy, propoſed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time loſt his ſon Euſtace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact inveſted with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the Engliſh, who had ſuffered ſo much during the late civil wars, with great joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his time. He ſoon diſcovered extraordinary abilities for government; and had performed, in the ſixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the moſt experienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne, he found the condition of the Engliſh boroughs greatly bettered, by the privileges granted them in the ſtruggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to ſuch a height, that if a bondman or ſervant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free. He erected Wallingford, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the ſervices the inhabitants had done to his mother and himſelf; by diſcharging them from every burthen, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of ſuch towns; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vaſt acceſſion of power to the crown, becauſe the crown alone could ſupport the boroughs againſt their feudal tyrants; and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very ſcrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he reſumed the exceſſive grants of crown-lands made by Stephen, which were repreſented as illegal. He demoliſhed many of the caſtles that had been built by the barons; but, when he came to attack the clergy, he found their uſurpations not to be ſhaken. He perceived that the root of all the enormous diſorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay-courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and diſorders occaſioned by thoſe exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not atteſted by the moſt unexceptionable evidence. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the Engliſh church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his office, and ſtill more ſo by his popularity, ariſing from a pretended ſanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but at the ſame time cool and politic. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is ſtill famous for the conſtitutions there enacted, which, in fact, aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh See over the Engliſh clergy. Becket, finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream,

ſigned thoſe conſtitutions till they could be ratified by the pope, who, as he foreſaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the moſt determined ſpirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the See of Rome was in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king eſpouſed his quarrel. The effect was, that all the Engliſh clergy who were on the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the laity abſolved from their allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubmitted to treat, and even to be inſulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the ſtreets of London in 1170. His return ſwelled his pride, and increaſed his inſolence, till both became inſupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the firſt ſubject in his own dominions, he was heard to ſay, in the anguiſh of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the ears of four knights, Reginald Fitzurſe, William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, and Richard Brito; who, without acquainting Henry with their intentions, went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury, in the year 1171. Henry was in no condition to ſecond the blind obedience of his knights; and the public reſentment roſe ſo high, on the ſuppoſition that he was privy to the murder, that he ſubmitted to be ſcourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in conſequence of his well-known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually reſumed their moſt valuable poſſeſſions in the north of England. This occaſioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken priſoner; and, to deliver himſelf from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was alſo agreed, that liege homage ſhould be done, and fealty ſworn to Henry, without reſerve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland from whom Henry ſhould deſire it, in the ſame manner as by his other vaſſals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewiſe obliged to render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewiſe diſtinguiſhed his reign by the conqueſt of Ireland: and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but the heireſs of Guienne and Poitou, he became almoſt as powerful in France as the French king himſelf, and the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom. In his old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleaſure, and embarraſſed himſelf in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Roſamond, which were reſented by his queen Eleanor, who even engaged her ſons, Henry (whom his father had unadviſedly cauſed to be crowned in his own life-time), Richard, and John, into repeated rebellions, which affected their father ſo much, as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and fifty-ſeventh of his age. The ſum he left in ready money at his death has perhaps been exaggerated; but the moſt moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000 pounds of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were eſtabliſhed all over England; by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Thoſe corporations encouraged trade; but

manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of ſilk, ſeem ſtill to have been confined to Spain and Italy: for the ſilk coronation robes, made uſe of by young Henry and his queen, coſt 87l. 10s. 4d. in the ſheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Maddox: a vaſt ſum in thoſe days. Henry introduced the uſe of glaſs in windows into England, and ſtone arches in buildings.

In this reign, and in thoſe barbarous ages, it was a cuſtom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more, of the ſons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themſelves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houſes and plunder them, to rob and murder paſſengers, and to commit, with impunity, all ſorts of diſorders. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into ſix parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold *aſſizes*, or adminiſter juſtice to the people, as is practiſed at this day.

Henry ſo far aboliſhed the barbarous and abſurd practice of forfeiting ſhips which had been wrecked on the coaſt, that if one man or animal were alive in the ſhip, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the owners. This prince was alſo the firſt who levied a tax on the moveable and perſonal eſtates of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. To ſhow the genius of theſe ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbiſhop of York, and Richard archbiſhop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when eccleſiaſtics could proceed to ſuch extremities. The pope's legate having ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy at London, both the archbiſhops claimed the privilege of ſitting on his right hand; which queſtion of precedency begot a controverſy between them. The monks and retainers of archbiſhop Richard fell upon Roger, in the preſence of the cardinal and of the ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and ſo bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, from his great courage, was the third but eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over; and for their own ends they perſuaded him to make a moſt magnificent but ruinous cruſade to the Holy Land, where he took Aſcalon, and performed actions of valour that gave countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After ſeveral glorious but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the duke of Auſtria, who, in 1193, ſent him a priſoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at 150,000 marks; about 300,000 pounds of our preſent money.

Whilſt the Scottiſh kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their intereſt, once generally in every king's reign, to perform homage; but when they were deprived of their ſaid lands, they paid it no more*.

Woollen broad-cloaths were made in England at this time. An ox ſold for three ſhillings, which anſwers to nine ſhillings of our money, and a ſheep at four pence, or one ſhilling. Weights and meaſures were now ordered to be the ſame all over the kingdom. Richard was ſlain in

* It appears, however, that William I. king of Scotland, and his ſubjects, conſented to acknowledge the king of England and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their ſovereigns and liege lords, and that they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly: but this advantage was given up by Richard I. Vide lord Lyttleton's Hiſtory of Henry II. Vol. v. p. 220, 223, 235, 8vo. edit.

beſieging the caſtle of Chalons in the year 1199, the forty-ſecond of his age, and tenth of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who ſucceeded him, is infamous in the Engliſh hiſtory. He is ſaid to have put to death Arthur the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Conſtance, complained to Philip, the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vaſſal, deprived him of Normandy. John, notwithſtanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſonal valour; but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, that he rendered himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs, by taking arms; but he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope; and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him in 1216 to ſign the great deed ſo well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Engliſh liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of thoſe immunities which the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better ſecured, this charter, by various ſubſequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every Engliſh ſubject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarcely ſigned it, but he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehenſive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refuſed to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the eighteenth year of his reign, and the forty-ninth of his age, juſt as he had a glimpſe of reſuming his authority.

The city of London owes ſome of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chooſe a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their ſheriffs and common council annually, as at preſent.

England was in a deplorable ſituation when the crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was choſen his guardian; and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died 1219, and the regency devolved upon the biſhop of Wincheſter. The king was of a ſoft pliable diſpoſition, and had been perſuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he ſeemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. An aſſociation of the barons was formed againſt him and his government; and a civil war breaking out, Henry ſeemed to be abandoned by all but his Gaſcons and foreign mercenaries. His profuſion brought him into inexpreſſible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his ſiſter, and was made earl of Leiceſter, being choſen general of the aſſociation, the king and his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners, at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of

Glouceſter, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldeſt ſon, obtained his liberty, and aſſembling as many as he could of his father's ſubjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Eveſham, Auguſt 4th, 1265, and killed Montfort. The repreſentatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgeſſes, formed now part of the Engliſh legiſlature, in a ſeparate houſe; and this gave the firſt blow to feudal tenures in England: but hiſtorians are not agreed in what manner the commons before this time formed any part of the Engliſh parliaments or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a cruſade, Henry, during his abſence, died in 1272, the ſixty-fourth year of his age, and fifty-ſixth of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet, to the ſtruggles of this reign, the people in great meaſure owe the liberties of the preſent day. Intereſt had in that age mounted to an enormous height. There are inſtances of 50 per cent. being paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithſtanding the grievous oppreſſions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a freſh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refuſed compliance. They now loſt all patience, and deſired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom: but the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppreſſion you complain of? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I am ſtripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had ſaid 300,0000 I ſhould not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my ſon prince Edward 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I muſt have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Briſtol; and, on his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he ſhould conſent. The Jew loſt ſeven teeth, and then paid the ſum required of him. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely diſuſed, and that by *duel* diſcouraged. Bracton's famous law-treatiſe was publiſhed in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite* to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted (that the reader may have ſome idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats. (See Rymer's Fœdera.) Alexander III. king of Scotland, was at the ſolemnity, and on the occaſion 500 horſes were let looſe, for thoſe that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince; and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his regulations, and reformation of the laws, have juſtly given him the title of the Engliſh Juſtinian. He paſſed the famous Mortmain act, whereby all perſons "were reſtrained from giving, by will or *otherwiſe*, their eſtates to (thoſe *ſo called*) religious purpoſes, and the ſocieties that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the Cinque Ports, which, though now very inconſiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond ſea, with fifty-ſeven ſhips, each having twenty armed ſoldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own coſts for the ſpace of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, and annexed that principality to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of Prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon.

His vaſt connections with the continent were productive of many

benefits to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading-glasses and spectacles; though they are said to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay, and mark of the goldsmiths' company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himself and the English, by draining them of their wealth; and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign, while he was engaged in a new expedition against Scotland. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with 32,000 pounds for the maintenance of the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His son and successor Edward II. showed early dispositions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveston, his chief minion, a Gascon, being banished by his father Edward, he mounted the throne with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, and loaded him with honours, and married Isabella, daughter of the French king, who restored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had lost in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the Great Charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat England ever suffered, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a spy upon the king; but he soon became his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was banished, together with his father, whom he had procured to be made earl of Winchester. The queen, a furious, ambitious woman, persuaded her husband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and, after defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all his prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes; and many noble patriots, with their estates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at last she became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her prisoner, and had been one of the most active of the anti-royalist lords. A breach between her and the Spencers soon followed; and going over to France with her lover, she found means to form such a party in England, that, returning with some French troops, she put the eldest Spencer to an ignominious death, made her husband prisoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his son Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt; and he was most barbarously murdered in Berkley-castle, by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

Upon an average, the difference of living, then and now, seems to be nearly as five or six is to one; always remembering that their money contained thrice as much silver as our money or coin of the same denomination does. Thus, for example, if a goose then cost 2½d. that is 7½d. of our money, or, according to the proportion of six to one, it would now cost us 3s. 9d. The knights Templars were suppressed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; and they endeavoured to keep possession of their power by executing many popular

meaſures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, was ſoon ſenſible of their deſigns. He ſurpriſed them in perſon at the head of a few choſen friends in the caſtle of Nottingham. Mortimer was put to a public death, hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herſelf was ſhut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, though he had married his ſiſter. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary, king of Scotland, and general, and did the ſame homage to Edward for Scotland as his father had done to Edward I. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without iſſue), who had ſucceeded by virtue of the Salic law, which, the French pretended, cut off all female ſucceſſion to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir-male by ſucceſſion; but he was oppoſed by Edward, as being the ſon of Iſabella, who was ſiſter to the three laſt mentioned kings of France, and firſt in the female ſucceſſion. The former was preferred; but the caſe being doubtful, Edward purſued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occaſion, the vaſt difference between the feudal conſtitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no ſubordination. They and their men were equally undiſciplined and diſobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The Engliſh freemen, on the other hand, having now vaſt property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by providing themſelves with proper armour, and ſubmitting to military exerciſes and proper ſubordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued ſcene of ſucceſs and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, uſing it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right." At Creſſy, Auguſt 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but ſixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four), though the Engliſh did not exceed 30,000. The loſs of the French far exceeded the number of the Engliſh army, whoſe loſs conſiſted of no more than three knights and one eſquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with great ſuperior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite ſon Philip taken priſoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle was double that of all the Engliſh army; but the modeſty and politeneſs with which the prince treated his royal priſoners formed the brighteſt wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had the good fortune to take priſoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy was fought, and remained a priſoner eleven years. Thus Edward had the glory to ſee two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ranſomed; David for 100,000 marks, and John for three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which

Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his fortunes declined. He had reſigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales; and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubjects at home, on account of his attachment to his miſtreſs, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince*, from his wearing that armour, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſeiſed with a conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long ſurvive him; for he died, diſpirited and obſcure, at Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the ſixty-fifth of his age, and fifty-firſt of his reign.

No prince ever underſtood the balance and intereſts of Europe better than Edward did; and he was one of the beſt and moſt illuſtrious kings that ſat on the Engliſh throne. Bent on the conqueſt of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for protection and ſecurity to their liberties and properties; but he thereby exhauſted his regal dominions; neither was his ſucceſſor, when he mounted the throne, ſo powerful a prince as he was in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of eſtabliſhing the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign ſeems to have been much the ſame as in the preceding; and few of the Engliſh ſhips, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithſtanding the vaſt increaſe of property in England, villanage ſtill continued in the royal, epiſcopal, and baronial manors. Hiſtorians are not agreed whether Edward made uſe of artillery in his firſt invaſion of France: but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent caſtle of Windſor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people of that age. Inſtead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he aſſembled every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enliſted only for a ſhort time: they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and commonly all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ranſom of priſoners, was ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fortune to a man, which was a great allurement to enter into the ſervice. The wages of a maſter-carpenter was limited through the whole year to three-pence a day, a common carpenter to two-pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to ſpread the doctrines of reformation, by his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many diſciples of all ranks and ſtations. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety, and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines which had generally paſſed for certain and undiſputed, during ſo many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe, being derived from his ſearch into the ſcriptures, and into eccleſiaſtical antiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the ſixteenth century. But though the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution,

* He was alſo the firſt in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his father duke of Cornwall; and, ever ſince, the eldeſt ſon of the king of England is by birth duke of Cornwall.

which was reſerved for a more free and inquiring age. He had many friends in the univerſity of Oxford, and at court, and was powerfully protected againſt the evil deſigns of the pope and biſhops by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, one of the king's ſons, and other great men. His diſciples were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. ſon of the Black Prince, was only eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The Engliſh arms were then unſucceſsful both in France and Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaſter, the king's uncle, and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate, that corn, and other victuals, were ſuffered to be tranſported, and the Engliſh had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they ſeem, from records, to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and ſo many men were employed in unſucceſsful wars, that the commons of England, like powder receiving a ſpark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a prieſt, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the loweſt of the people. The conduct of theſe inſurgents was very violent, and in many reſpects extremely unjuſtifiable; but it cannot juſtly be denied that the common people of England then laboured under many oppreſſions, particularly a *poll-tax*, and had abundant reaſon to be diſcontented with the government.

Richard was not then above ſixteen; but he acted with great ſpirit and wiſdom. He faced the ſtorm of the inſurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malcontents, to death, in the midſt of his adherents. Richard then aſſociated to himſelf a new ſet of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms; and being headed by the duke of Glouceſter, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being inſincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more deſpotic than any king in England ever had been, when he loſt his crown and life by a ſudden cataſtrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard baniſhed them both, with particular marks of injuſtice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaſter by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a ſtrong party formed in England, the natural reſult of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaſter the crown. He landed from France at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire, and was ſoon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them Engliſh. Richard hurried back to England, where, his troops refuſing to fight, and his ſubjects, whom he had affected to deſpiſe, generally deſerting him, he was made priſoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was depoſed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and miſconduct; and ſoon after he is ſuppoſed to have been ſtarved to death in priſon, in the year 1399, the thirty-fourth of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. He had no iſſue by either of his two marriages.

Though the nobility of England were poſſeſſed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence

of the commons. They had the courage to remonſtrate boldly in parliament againſt the uſury, which was but too much practiſed in England, and other abuſes of both clergy and laity; and the deſtruction of the feudal powers ſoon followed.

Henry the Fourth *, ſon of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. being ſettled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him among his great men, as the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Glouceſter and Saliſbury, and the archbiſhop of York; but he cruſhed them by his activity and ſteadineſs, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was underſtood by the Percy family, the greateſt in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle; and the dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his ſon the famous Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur; but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry ſuppreſſed the inſurrection of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent conceſſions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at laſt conquered all oppoſition, while, to ſalve the defect of his title the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Rothſay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a priſoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite ſervice to his government; and, before his death, which happened in 1413, in the forty-ſixth year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon and ſucceſſor, the prince of Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, which till then had diſgraced his conduct.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly increaſed, that we find an Engliſh veſſel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ſhips of equal burden carrying on a great trade all over Europe, but with the Hanſe towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV., as I have already hinted, was the firſt prince who gave the different orders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little ſurpriſing, that learning was at this time in a much lower ſtate in England, and all over Europe, that it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy, in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me" or, "As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt, I have ſubſcribed." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the ſeſſions of parliament 1401, for the burning of heretics, occaſioned by the great

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaſter ſtepped forth, and having croſſed himſelf on his forehead and on his breaſt, and called upon the name of Chriſt, he pronounced theſe words, which I ſhall give in the original language, becauſe of their ſingularity.

*In the name of Fadher, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, I, Henry of Lancaſter, challenge this reawme of Ynglande, and the croun, with all the membris, and the appurtenances; al: I that am deſcendit by right line of the blode* (meaning a claim in right of his mother) *coming from the gude king Henry Thirde, and throge that right that God of his grace hath ſent me, with help of kyn, and of my frendes, to recover it; the which reawme was in poynt to be undone for defaut of governance, and ondoying of the gude lawes.*

increaſe of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtre, pariſh-prieſt of St. Oſithe in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and ſheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was againſt England at the acceſſion of Henry V. in 1413: ſo greatly had luxury increaſed. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were exceſſively numerous; and ſir John Oldcaſtle and lord Cobham having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himſelf at their head, with a deſign to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundleſs accuſation, from a bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to death in conſequence of it. His only real crime ſeems to have been the ſpirit with which he oppoſed the ſuperſtition of the age; and he was the firſt of the nobility who ſuffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a conteſt with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a reſtitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been taken from England in the preceding reigns; alſo the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ranſom ſince the reign of Edward III.; and availing himſelf of the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, where he firſt took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled thoſe of Creſſy and Poictiers in glory to the Engliſh, but exceeded them in its conſequences, on account of the vaſt number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made ſuch alliances, and divided the French among themſelves ſo effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whoſe huſband, Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princeſs Catharine, to diſinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her huſband's life, and him and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy, which muſt at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king ſtill continued Henry's captive) furniſhed the dauphin with vaſt ſupplies, and preſerved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proſcribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might cruſh the dauphin and his Scottiſh auxiliaries. He probably would have been ſucceſsful, had he not died of a pleuritic diſorder, 1442, the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign.

Henry V.'s vaſt ſucceſſes in France revived the trade of England, and at the ſame time increaſed and eſtabliſhed the privileges and liberties of the Engliſh commonalty. As he died when he was only thirty-four years of age, it is hard to ſay, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly diſtracted by the diviſions among its princes; but whether this would have been of ſervice or prejudice to the growing liberties of his Engliſh ſubjects we cannot determine.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714l. a year, which is nearly the ſame with the revenues in Henry III.'s time; and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the courſe of 200 years. The ordinary expenſes of the government amounted to 52,507l. ſo that the king had of ſurplus only 3,207l. for the ſupport of his houſehold, for his wardrobe, for the expenſes of embaſſies, and other articles. This ſum was not nearly ſufficient even

in time of peace; and, to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miſerable ſhifts: he borrowed from all quarters, he pawned his jewels, and ſometimes the crown itſelf; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to ſtop in the midſt of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention theſe particulars that the reader may judge of the ſimplicity and temperance of our predeceſſors three centuries ago, when the expenſes of the greateſt king in Europe were ſcarcely equal to the penſion of a ſuperannuated courtier of the preſent age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to conform the title of the Lancaſter houſe to the throne of England. Henry VI. ſurnamed of Windſor, was no more than nine months old, when, in conſequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, both of them princes of great accompliſhments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preſerve their brother's conqueſts. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the perſon of his ſon and ſucceſſor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at laſt laid ſiege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conqueſt of France. The ſiege was raiſed by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phænomenon hardly to be paralleled in hiſtory, ſhe being born of the loweſt extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and ſome time a helper in ſtables in public inns. She muſt, notwithſtanding, have poſſeſſed an amazing fund of ſagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her ſovereign's head, ſhe was taken priſoner by the Engliſh in making a ſally during the ſiege of Compiegne, who burnt her alive for a witch, at Rouen, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the Engliſh, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the Engliſh intereſt in France, and the loſs of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding the amazing courage of Talbot the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its diſunion at home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the government; and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily, a woman of a high ſpirit, but an implacable diſpoſition; while the cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubject in England, if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury, and by his avarice ruined the intereſt of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngeſt ſon: and he affected to keep up the diſtinction of a white roſe; that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family: and he loſt no opportunity of forming a party to aſſert his right, but acted at firſt with a moſt profound diſſimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a profeſſed enemy to the duke of York; but being impeached in parliament, he was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off on board a ſhip, by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſurrection of

20,000 Kentiſh-men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who ſent to the court a liſt of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen ſeemed to be perfectly ſecure againſt the duke of York. The inglorious management of the Engliſh affairs in France befriended him; and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobility his friends; but being conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he profeſſed the moſt profound reverence to Henry.

The perſons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York were the earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England; and his vaſt abilities, joined to ſome virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and during a fit of illneſs of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both ſides now prepared for arms; and the king recovering, the queen with wonderful activity aſſembled an army; but the royaliſts were defeated in the firſt battle of St. Alban's, and the king himſelf was taken priſoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom; but it was not long before the queen reſumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakneſs became every day more and more viſible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the maſk, and, in 1459, he openly claimed the crown; and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament upon this being aſſembled, it was enacted that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the throne for life, but that the duke of York ſhould ſucceed him, to the excluſion of all Henry's iſſue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromiſe. She retreated northwards; and the king being ſtill a priſoner, ſhe pleaded his cauſe ſo well, that, aſſembling a freſh army, ſhe fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and ſlain, in 1460.

It is remarkable, that, though the duke of York and his party openly aſſerted his claim to the crown, they ſtill profeſſed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's ſon, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained ſeveral victories over the royaliſts. The queen, however, advanced towards London; and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the ſecond battle of St Alban's, ſhe delivered her huſband; but the diſorders committed by her northern troops diſguſted the Londoners ſo much, that ſhe durſt not enter London, where the duke of York was received, on the 28th of February 1461, while the queen and her huſband were obliged to retreat northwards. She ſoon raiſed another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the moſt bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both ſides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her huſband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with generous protection.

This civil war was carried on with greater animoſity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-thirſty as her opponents; and when priſoners on either ſide were made, their deaths, eſpecially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the conceſſions ſhe made to the Scots, ſoon raiſed a freſh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at laſt her huſband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried priſoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married, Elizabeth the widow of ſir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl, deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation, and, from being Edward's beſt friend, became his moſt formidable enemy; and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made priſoner; but eſcaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner, and defeated and killed Warwick in the battle of Barnet. A few days after he defeated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Margaret priſoner, together with her ſon prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Glouceſter, murdered in cold blood, as he is ſaid (but with no great ſhow of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a priſoner in the tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471.

Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expenſes of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat, with France: but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-ſecond of his age.

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increaſed during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve to themſelves the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own merchandiſe; but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe. The invention of printing, which is generally ſuppoſed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Engliſh nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are moſtly re-tranſlations, or compilations from the French or monkiſh Latin; but it muſt be acknowledged, at the ſame time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progreſs among the Engliſh than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littleton, judge of the Common Pleas, and Forteſcue, chancellor of England, flouriſhed at this period.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerciſed her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obſcure relations. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle, the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to baſtardiſe her iſſue, by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at laſt accepted the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having firſt put to death all the nobility and great men whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the

Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The moſt probable opinion is, that they were clandeſtinely ſent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger ſurvived and was the ſame who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the Engliſh were prepoſſeſſed ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends; and by offering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; but they were ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-field, in which Richard, after diſplaying moſt aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour, was killed, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

Though the ſame act of baſtardy affected the daughters as well as the ſons of the late king, yet no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaſter, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houſes, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houſes of York and Lancaſter. Henry, however, reſted his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the firſt who inſtituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which ſtill ſubſiſts; and, in imitation of his predeceſſor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges aſſumed by the barons, in aboliſhing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could ſhelter himſelf from the law, on aſſuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his perſon. The deſpotic court of ſtar-chamber owed its original to Henry; but at the ſame time, it muſt be acknowledged, that he paſſed many acts, eſpecially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his ſubjects; and, as a finiſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, an act paſſed, by which the barons and gentleman of landed intereſt were at liberty to ſell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its conſequences, is perhaps the moſt important act that ever paſſed in an Engliſh parliament, though its tendency ſeems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increaſe of trade, and the diſcovery of America, had broken with irreſiſtible force into England; and moneyed property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the eſtates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were gradually extinguiſhed in England.

Henry, after encountering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as ſuch by the ducheſs of Burgundy, Edward's ſiſter. We ſhall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain that many of the Engliſh, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public ſatisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland diſmiſſed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldeſt daughter, yet, by the kind manner in which he entertained

and diſmiſſed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon; which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape along with the innocent earl of Warwick; for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain; and he dying ſoon after, ſuch was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he conſented to her being married again to his ſecond ſon, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the firſt match had not been conſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſent with a moſt magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the fifty-ſecond year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000l. ſterling, which is equivalent to five millions at preſent; ſo that he may be ſuppoſed to have been maſter of more ready money than all the kings in Europe beſides poſſeſſed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of replenithing his coffers, and often tricked his parliament to grant him ſubſidies for foreign alliances which he intended not to purſue.

The vaſt alteration which happened in the conſtitution of England during Henry VII.'s reign has been already mentioned. His exceſſive love of money, and his avarice, was the probable reaſon why he did not become maſter of the Weſt Indies, he having the firſt offer of the diſcovery from Columbus; whoſe propoſals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he ſet out upon the diſcovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he effected after a paſſage of thirty-three days, and took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry, however, made ſome amends by encouraging Cabot, a Venetian, who diſcovered the main land of North America in 1498; and we may obſerve, to the praiſe of this king, that ſometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants ſums of money without intereſt, when he knew that their ſtock was not ſufficient for thoſe enterpriſes which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Maddox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle muſt have been prodigiouſly advanced before Henry's death. An inſtance of this is given in the caſe of lady Anne, ſiſter to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week for her exhibition, ſuſtentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; alſo for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight perſons), 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and cloathing; and for the maintenance of ſeven horſes, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horſe, 2l. 7s. 0d$\frac{1}{2}$. yearly, money being ſtill 1$\frac{1}{2}$ times as weighty as our modern ſilver coin. Wheat was at that day no more than 3s. 4d. a quarter, which anſwers to 5s. of our money; conſequently it was about ſeven times as cheap as at preſent: ſo that, had all other neceſſaries been equally cheap, ſhe could have lived as well as on 1260l. 10s. 6d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at preſent.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did

on the exerciſe of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe; but it is certain that he neglected thoſe advantages in commerce with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not ſtand in need of a ſupply, he did not improve Cabot's diſcoveries; and he ſuffered the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to be engroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent; and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conqueſt of all France. Theſe projects, and his eſtabliſhing what is properly called a *naval royal*, for the permanent defence of the nation (a moſt excellent meaſure), led him into incredible expenſes. He became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy; but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles; but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare himſelf for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expenſes, till at laſt he was forced to lay vaſt burdens upon his ſubjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romiſh church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, "Of the *Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day; but, about the year 1527, he began to have ſome ſcruple with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I ſhall not ſay how far on this occaſion he might be influenced by ſcruples of his conſcience, or averſion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this proceſs ruined Wolſey, who died heart-broken, after being ſtript of his immenſe power and poſſeſſions.

A variety of circumſtances, it is well known, induced Henry at laſt to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation; in which, however, many of the Romiſh errors and ſuperſtitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty meaſure, had it not been for his deſpotic diſpoſition, which broke out on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of his queen's inconſtancy, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death ſome of her neareſt relations; and in many reſpects he acted in the moſt arbitrary manner; his wiſhes, however unreaſonable, being too readily complied with, in conſequence of the ſhameful ſervility of his parliaments. The diſſolution of the religious houſes, and the immenſe wealth that came to Henry by ſeiſing all the eccleſiaſtical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition; ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent blood of England was ſhed on ſcaffolds, and ſeldom any long time paſſed without being marked with ſome illuſtrious victim of his tyranny.—Among others, was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correſpondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune

and family; but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves. He diſliked her ſo much, that he ſcarcely bedded with her; and obtaining a divorce, he ſuffered her to reſide in England on a penſion of 3000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, neice to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His laſt wife was Catharine Par, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after ſhe had narrowly eſcaped being brought to the ſtake, for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increaſed with his years, and was now exerciſed promiſcuouſly on proteſtants and catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death, without a crime being proved againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered the next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's own death, 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The ſtate of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the means of printing, better known than that of his predeceſſors. His attention to the naval ſecurity of England was highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjuſt and arbitrary power he frequently aſſumed, in many reſpects, for the glory and intereſt of his ſubjects. Without inquiring into his religious motives, it muſt be candidly confeſſed, that, had the reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws and the courts of juſtice, it probably never could have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years; and whatever Henry's perſonal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby reſcuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the preſent greatneſs of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a penſion to Eraſmus, the moſt learned man of his age. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houſes began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generous friend to Cranmer; and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimſical than ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the inſtruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king inſtead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector, and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the See of Rome.

The reader is to obſerve in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the laſt relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, and being ejected from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often ſuppreſſed by the government; and ſeveral of theſe inſurrections were cruſhed in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer and others, ſome of them foreign divines. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and

ſome cruel ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuſes him from blame; and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, and St. Thomas's hoſpitals, and alſo ſeveral ſchools which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhow the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a deep conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconſtitutional will; for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the ducheſs of Suffolk, younger ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recogniſed the claim of the princeſs Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head. Her huſband, lord Guildford Dudley, ſon to the duke of Northumberland, alſo ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury to re-eſtabliſh popery, which ſhe did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from baniſhment, made him inſtrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of perſecution, in which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illuſtrious confeſſors of the Engliſh reformed church, were conſumed; not to mention a vaſt number of other ſacrifices of both ſexes, and all ranks, that ſuffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner, biſhop of London, and Gardiner, biſhop of Winchester, were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates: and had ſhe lived, ſhe would have endeavoured to exterminate all her proteſtant ſubjects.

Mary now married Philip II. of Spain, who, like herſelf, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that, by the marriage articles, proviſion was made for the independency of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops which ſhe furniſhed to her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France, and which had been held ever ſince the reign of Edward III. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections with the French court, is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her perſecuting flames (ſays a contemporary writer of credit) were burnt to aſhes, 1 archbiſhop, 4 biſhops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 huſbandmen, ſervants, and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, ſpringing out of the mother's womb from the ſtake as ſhe burned, thrown again into the fire." Several alſo died in priſon, and many were otherwiſe cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the eſtabliſhed religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldeſt daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally ſhe had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and ſoul of the popiſh cauſe, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age at the time of her

inauguration; but her ſufferings under her bigoted ſiſter, joined to the ſuperiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy; and ſhe ſoon conquered all difficulties.

In matters of religion ſhe ſucceeded with ſurpriſing facility; for in her firſt parliament in 1559, the laws eſtabliſhing popery were repealed, her ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity paſſed ſoon after. And it is obſerved, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refuſed to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title, ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend, her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſupported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the ſuppoſed murderer of the former, and her other miſconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had often been promiſed a ſafe and honourable aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained the unhappy priſoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without ſufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head—an action which greatly tarniſhed the glories of her reign.

The ſame Philip who had been the huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her: but ſhe dexterouſly avoided his addreſſes; and by a train of ſkilful negotiations between her court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance of Europe ſo undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home, and to eſtabliſh an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She ſupported the proteſtants of France againſt their perſecuting princes and the papiſts, and gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of them ſhould be her huſband; by which ſhe kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the ſame time in ſo good humour with her government, that it ſhowed no reſentment when ſhe cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amuſed and baffled him in every quarter, it is well known that he made uſe of the immenſe ſums he drew from Peru and Mexico in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the beſt captain of that age, and that he procured a papal bull for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. The largeneſs of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the ſeas where they fought; the lord admiral Howard, and the brave ſea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chaſed the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral days; and the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the Engliſh arms had begun, and few of the Spaniſh ſhips recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, lord Howard of Effingham, ſir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt this formidable invaſion, in which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leiceſter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſe, that the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency; and then ſhe ſent forth her fleets under

Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, whence they brought prodigious treaſures, taken from the Spaniards, into England.

Elizabeth in her old age grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teaſed him by her capriciouſneſs into the madneſs of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that ſhe had been betrayed into this ſanguinary meaſure; and this occaſioned a ſinking of her ſpirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the ſeventieth year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previouſly named her kinſman James VI. king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, for her ſucceſſor.

The above form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She ſupported the proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, of which Philip king of Spain was the head. She cruſhed the papiſts in her own dominions for the ſame reaſon, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which ſtate it has remained ever ſince. In 1600 the Engliſh Eaſt-India company received its firſt formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portugueſe (in conſequence of their having firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vaſco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.), who at that time were ſubjects to Spain; and factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign have diſguiſed it; for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and ſhe was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred lights of Engliſhmen. The ſevere ſtatutes againſt the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conſcience, and by which many ſuffered death, muſt be condemned.

We can ſcarcely require a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the long inveterate animoſities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impreſſions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the Engliſh throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconſtitutional powers that had been occaſionally exerciſed by Elizabeth and the houſe of Tudor, and which various cauſes had prevented the people from oppoſing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhauſted by the long and deſtructive wars between the houſes of Lancaſter and York, in the courſe of which the ancient nobility were in great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much, rather than again involve themſelves in the miſeries of civil war. Neither did James make any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth, which, as I have obſerved, diſguiſed her moſt arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal ſentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffuſed through England. It is needleſs to point out the vaſt increaſe of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the Engliſh at the ſame time to defend their liberties. James's firſt attempt of great conſequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the averſion of the Engliſh to that meaſure, on account of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth and honours, he ſhowed no violent reſentment at the diſappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the

courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gunpowder treaſon *.

James and his miniſters were continually inventing new ways to raiſe money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he ſold the titles of baron, viſcount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay ſuch a ſum, and inſtituted a new order of knights-baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each perſon paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a ſeries of theological conteſts with eccleſiaſtical caſuiſts, in which he proved himſelf more a theologian than a prince; and in 1617 he attempted to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people baffled his deſign.

James gave his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and he ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour, after that prince had loſt his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be obſerved, that he always oppoſed his ſon-in-law's aſſuming the crown of Bohemia; that, had he kindled a war to re-inſtate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the ſame, excepting the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance he might have received from the elector's dependants and friends in Germany. It is certain, however, that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raiſed a regiment of 2200 men under ſir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond them againſt Spinola the Spaniſh general.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His firſt was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raiſed to be firſt miniſter and earl of Somerſet. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity

* This was a ſcheme of the Roman-catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament; when it was alſo expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be preſent. The manner of enjoining any new conſpirator was by oath, and adminiſtering the ſacrament; and this dreadful ſecret, after being religiouſly kept near eighteen months, was happily diſcovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long-wiſhed-for meeting of parliament, a Roman-catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his ſervant by an unknown hand, earneſtly adviſing him to ſhift off his attendance in parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he conſidered the letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who, ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſuſpect ſome dangerous contrivance by gunpowder; and it was judged adviſable to inſpect all the vaults below the houſes of parliament; but the ſearch was purpoſely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a juſtice of peace was ſent with proper attendants; and before the door of the vault, under the upper houſe, finding one Fawkes, who had juſt finiſhed all his preparations, he immediately ſeiſed him, and at the ſame time diſcovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whoſe countenance beſpoke his ſavage diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity of deſtroying ſo many heretics, made a full diſcovery; and the conſpirators, who never exceeded eighty in number, being ſeiſed by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithſtanding this horrid crime, the bigotted catholics were ſo devoted to Garnet, a Jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a martyr.

with his ſovereign. James had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacrificed the brave ſir Walter Raleigh on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt Indies. James having loſt his eldeſt ſon, Henry Prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popiſh match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain as a proper wife for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the ſon as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour; and, againſt the king's will, they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where a moſt ſolemn farce of courtſhip was played; but the prince returned without his bride; and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not perſuade to furniſh money equal to his demands; and at laſt he agreed to his ſon's marrying the princeſs Henrietta Maria, ſiſter to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match; and it is thought that, had he lived, he would have diſcarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. As to the progreſs of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already deſcribed. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter ſir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture in England; and in his reign, poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, ſhone with great luſtre. Mr. Middleton alſo at this time projected the bringing water from Hertfordſhire to London, and ſupplying the city with it by means of pipes. This canal is ſtill called the *New River*.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, the king's favourite, who was aſſaſſinated by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots in that enlightened age juſtly conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman-uſher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much diſtinguiſhed by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court; but their plea was over-ruled, and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The commons would vote no ſupplies without ſome redreſs of the national grievances; upon which, Charles, preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly or not at all underſtood, levied money upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, and ſuch neceſſaries, and other obſolete claims, particularly for knighthood; and raiſed various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine,

Prynne, a lawyer, and Baſtwick, a phyſician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and reſolute, publiſhed ſeveral pieces, which gave offence to the court, and which contained ſome ſevere ſtrictures againſt the ruling clergy. They were proſecuted for theſe pieces in the ſtar-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and puniſhed with ſo much rigour, as excited an almoſt univerſal indignation againſt the authors of their ſufferings. Thus was the government rendered ſtill more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to proſecute the puritans, and, in the year 1637, to introduce epiſcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England in Auguſt, 1640, where Charles was ſo ill ſerved by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots, who made themſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the houſe of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, preſident of the council of the North, and lord-lieutenant of Ireland: and he was generally believed to be the firſt miniſter of ſtate. Strafford had been a leading member of the oppoſition to the court; but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himſelf ſo vigorouſly in carrying the king's deſpotic ſchemes into execution, that he became an object of public deteſtation. As lord-preſident of the North, as lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and as a miniſter and privy-counſellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injuſtice and oppreſſion. He was, in conſequence, at length, on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much againſt the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to ſign the warrant for his execution. Archbiſhop Laud was alſo beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a conſiderable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645. In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had paſſed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament as the future ſecurity of the liberty of the ſubject. It eſtabliſhed particularly, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or ſuch like charge, without common conſent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous inſtances, ſo that an univerſal diſcontent at his adminiſtration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion alſo broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where the proteſtants, without diſtinction of age, ſex, or condition, to the amount of many thouſands, were maſſacred by the papiſts; and great pains were taken to perſuade the public that Charles ſecretly favoured them out of hatred to his Engliſh ſubjects. The biſhops were expelled the houſe of peers, on account of their conſtantly oppoſing the deſigns and bills of the other houſe: and the leaders of the Engliſh houſe of commons ſtill kept up a correſpondence with the diſcontented Scots. Charles was ill enough adviſed to go in perſon to the houſe of commons, January 4, 1642, and there demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, ſir Arthur Haſelrig, and Mr. Stroud, ſhould be apprehended; but they had previouſly made their eſcape. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſon againſt his people; and the commons rejected all the offers of ſatisfaction he could make them.

Notwithſtanding the many acts of tyranny and oppreſſion, of which the king and his miniſters had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal ſtandard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and conſidered their own honours as connected with it; and a great part of the landed intereſt was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, took upon themſelves the executive power, and were favoured by moſt of the trading towns and corporations; but its great reſource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindſey, a brave but not an enterpriſing commander; but he had great dependence on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the elector Palatine, by his ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the aſcendency; but in the progreſs of it, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Eſſex was made general under the parliament, and the firſt battle was fought at Edgehill in Warwickſhire, the 23d of October, 1642. Both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles; for the parliament was ſo much diſtreſſed, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance, and they accordingly entered England anew, with about 20,000 horſe and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houſes met; but his enemies were ſtill ſitting at Weſtminſter, and continued to carry on the war againſt him with great animoſity. The independent party, which had ſcarcely before been thought of, began now to increaſe and to figure at Weſtminſter. They were averſe to the preſbyterians, who till then had conducted the war againſt the king, nearly as much as to the royaliſts; and ſuch was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſſex and Manchester, and the heads of the preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, on the ſuggeſtion that they were not for bringing the war to a ſpeedy end, or not for reducing the king too low; and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a preſbyterian, and ſome independent officers. In the mean while the war went on with reſentment and loſs on both ſides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, one on September 20th, 1643, and the other October 27th, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewiſe many other ſucceſſes; and having defeated ſir William Waller, he purſued the earl of Eſſex, who remained ſtill in command, into Cornwall, whence he was obliged to eſcape by ſea; but his infantry ſurrendered themſelves priſoners to the royaliſts, though his cavalry delivered themſelves by their valour.

The firſt fatal blow the king's army received was at Marſton-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken priſoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been retreived by the ſucceſſes of Charles in the Weſt, yet his whole conduct was a ſeries of miſtakes, till at laſt his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were ſet on foot during the war; and the heads of the preſbyterian party would have agreed to terms that very little bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents; who were aſſiſted by the ſtiffneſs, inſincerity, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himſelf. In ſhort, the independents at laſt ſucceeded in perſuading the members at Weſtminſter that Charles was not to be truſted, whatever his conceſſions

might be. From that moment the affairs of the royaliſts continually became more deſperate; Charles by piece-meal loſt all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the deciſive battle of Naſeby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as uſual, to the miſconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed with freſh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be ſafe.

The Scots were then beſieging Newark, and no good underſtanding ſubſiſted between them and the Engliſh parliamentarians; but the beſt and moſt loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy ſituation of his affairs, he eſcaped in diſguiſe from Oxford, and came to the Scotch army before Newark, on May 6, 1646, upon a promiſe of protection. The Scots, however, were ſo intimidated by the reſolutions of the parliament at Weſtminſter, that, in conſideration of 400,000l. of their arrears being paid, they put the perſon of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commiſſioners, probably not ſuſpecting the conſequences.

The preſbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make peace with the king; but they were no longer maſters, being forced to receive laws from the army and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They firſt by force took Charles out of the hands of the commiſſioners, June 4, 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might ſtill take place with the king, they impriſoned 41 of the preſbyterian members, voted the houſe of peers to be uſeleſs, and that of the commons was reduced to 150, moſt of them officers of the army. In the mean while, Charles, who unhappily promiſed himſelf relief from thoſe diſſenſions, was carried from priſon to priſon, and ſometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were ſet on foot, but all miſcarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an eſcape, to put himſelf into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the Iſle of Wight. A freſh negotiation was begun, and almoſt finiſhed, when the independents, dreading the general diſpoſition of the people for peace, and ſtrongly perſuaded of the inſincerity of the king, once more ſeiſed upon his perſon, brought him priſoner to London, carried him before a court of juſtice of their own erecting; and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues; and ſome have ſuppoſed that affliction had taught him ſo much wiſdom and moderation, that, had he been reſtored to his throne, he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reaſon to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the laſt, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been re-inſtated in power. It is however certain, that, notwithſtanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many in the courſe of the civil war, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cauſe, in which they loſt their lives and fortunes. The ſurviving children of Charles were Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England, Henry duke of Glouceſter, who died ſoon after his brother's reſtoration, the princeſs Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princeſs Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block were men of different perſuaſions and principles; but many of them poſſeſſed very extraordinary abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give a perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they made very ſucceſsful exertions for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland; and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worceſter. The ſame commonwealth paſſed an act of navigation; and declaring war againſt the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible by ſea, they effectually humbled thoſe republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time, Cromwell, who hated ſubordination to a parliament, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten; for which reaſon he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 muſqueteers, and diſſolved the parliament, opprobriouſly driving all the members, about a hundred, out of their houſe. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons, whom he ſummoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements by ſea were fought in little more than the compaſs of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral, Van Tromp. Cromwell all this time wanted to be declared king; but he perceived that he muſt encounter unſurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his other friends, if he ſhould perſiſt in his reſolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exerciſed all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more deſpotically in ſome reſpects than he did; yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends; and even thoſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king. Hiſtorians, in drawing the character of Cromwell, have been impoſed upon by his amazing ſucceſs, and dazzled by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult his ſecretary Thurloe's, and other ſtate papers, the impoſition in a great meaſure vaniſhes. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than ſhe had been treated with ſince the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic which Cromwell aboliſhed, and who, as it were inſtantaneouſly, called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted

to one million three hundred thouſand pounds, of which a million went to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the ſame year Cromwell aboliſhed all tenures *in capite*, by knight's ſervice, and the ſocage in chief, and likewiſe the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of during the late reigns were likewiſe removed. Next year the total charge or public expenſe of England amounted to two millions three hundred twenty-ſix thouſand nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and cuſtoms, paid into the exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and ſixty-two thouſand pounds, four ſhillings.

Upon the whole, it appears that England, from the year 1648 to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. The legal intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a ſure ſymptom of increaſing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the Engliſh trade, was now planned and eſtabliſhed, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted, to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly by Laud's intolerant ſchemes, having driven numbers of artiſans to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations we may add the modeſty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increaſe their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken through the ſober maxims of the republicans; for ſome time before his death he affected great magnificence in his perſon, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many inſtances interpoſed effectually in favour of the proteſtants abroad. Arts and ſciences were not much patroniſed, and yet he had the good fortune to meet, in the perſon of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter; and his coins, done by Simon, exceed in beauty and workmanſhip any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praiſe; and, as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit perſons for the ſeveral parts of adminiſtration, ſo he ſhowed ſome regard to men of learning, and particularly to thoſe intruſted with the care of youth at the univerſities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who ſucceeded his father Oliver as protector, ſufficiently proves the great difference there was between them, as to ſpirit and parts, in the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he was ſoon after driven, without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition, into obſcurity. It is vain for hiſtorians of any party to aſcribe the reſtoration of Charles II. (who, with his mother and brothers, during the uſurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious ſubſiſtence) to the merits of any particular perſons. The preſbyterians were very zealous in promoting it; but it was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who ſeemed to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by reſtoring the ancient conſtitution of the monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, except ſuch as ſerved his ambition or intereſt, had the ſagacity to obſerve this; and, after temporiſing in various ſhapes, being at the head of the army, he acted the principal part in reſtoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being reſtored in 1660, in the firſt year of his reign ſeemed to have a real deſire to promote his people's happineſs. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life; and in this act, coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. By his long reſidence, and that of his friends, abroad, he imported into England the culture of many uſeful vegetables; ſuch as that of aſparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and ſeveral kinds of beans, peas, and ſallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the Engliſh under the auſpices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and coloniſation were paſſed. In ſhort, Charles knew and cultivated the true intereſts of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence, failings that had the ſame conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. He appeared to intereſt himſelf in the ſufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; and in being rebuilt with greater luſtre and conveniences is a proof of the increaſe of her trade: but there were no bounds to Charles's love of pleaſure, which led him into the moſt extravagant expenſes. He has been ſeverely cenſured for ſelling Dunkirk to the French king to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000l. ſterling. But, even in this, his conduct was more defenſible than in his ſecret connections with France, which were of the moſt ſcandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and ſuch as muſt ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king, my be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviſer of the ſale of Dunkirk; a man of extenſive knowledge, and great abilities, and more honeſt in his intentions than moſt of his other miniſters, but whom he ſacrificed to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours. The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great reſolution and ſpirit under the duke of York; but, through Charles's miſapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to inſult the royal navy of England, by ſailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and deſtroying ſeveral capital ſhips of war. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Great Britain and the States-General, for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, 1668, it was called the *triple alliance*.

In 1671, Charles was ſo ill adviſed as to ſeize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8l. per cent. and to ſhut up the exchequer. This was an indefenſible ſtep; and Charles pretended to juſtify it by the neceſſity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a freſh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almoſt proved fatal to that republic; for in this war the Engliſh fleet and army acted in conjunction with thoſe of France. The duke of York commanded the Engliſh fleet, and diſplayed great gallantry in that ſtation. The duke of Monmouth, the eldeſt and favourite natural ſon of Charles, commanded 6000 Engliſh forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries; and all Holland muſt have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch, Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and ſome very unforeſeen circumſtances. All confidence was now loſt between

Charles and his parliament, notwithſtanding the glory which the Engliſh fleet obtained at ſea againſt the Dutch. The popular clamour at laſt obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in conſideration of 200,000l. which was paid him.

In ſome things Charles acted very deſpotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houſes, and ordered them to be ſhut up; but in a few days after they were opened again. Great rigour and ſeverity were exerciſed againſt the preſbyterians, and all other nonconformiſts to epiſcopacy, which was again eſtabliſhed with a high hand in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addreſſed him, but in vain, to make war with France, in the year 1677; for he was entirely devoted to that crown, regularly received its money as a penſioner, and hoped, through its influence and power, to be abſolute. It is not, however, to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increaſed, and Charles entered into many vigorous meaſures for its protection and ſupport.

Charles's connections with France gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exaſperated againſt the French and the papiſts; at the head of whom was the king's eldeſt brother, and preſumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the proſpect of a civil war, and offered many conceſſions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were bent upon ſuch a revolution as afterwards took place, and were ſecretly determined that the duke of York never ſhould reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and ſome others, pretended to diſcover a plot, charging the papiſts with a deſign to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jeſuits in England and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more ſelf-contradictory, than ſome parts of their narrative, yet it was ſupported with the utmoſt zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman, ſecretary to the duke of York, with many Jeſuits, and other papiſts, were publicly executed on the teſtimony of evidences ſuppoſed now to have been perjured by thoſe who believe the whole plot to have been a fiction. The queen herſelf eſcaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts; and Charles, though convinced, as it is ſaid, that the whole was an impoſture, yielded to the torrent. At laſt it ſpent its force. The earl of Shafteſbury, who was at the head of the oppoſition, puſhed on the total excluſion of the duke of York from the throne. He was ſeconded by the ill-adviſed duke of Monmouth; and the bill, after paſſing the commons, miſcarried in the houſe of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, ſeemed to recover the affections of his people to a very great degree.

The duke of York and his party made a ſcandalous uſe of their victory. They fabricated on their ſide a pretended plot of the proteſtants for ſeizing and killing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as falſe as that with which the papiſts had been charged. The excellent lord Ruſſel, who had been remarkable in his oppoſition to the popiſh ſucceſſion, Algernon Sydney, and ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed proteſtants, were tried, condemned, and ſuffered death; and the king ſet his foot on the neck of oppoſition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the meaſures of the court, as were almoſt all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shafteſbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to

Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of ſome of his arbitrary ſteps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and have executed ſome meaſures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died, February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, with whom he received a large fortune in ready money, beſides the town and fortreſs of Tangier in Africa, but he left behind him no lawful iſſue. The deſcendants of his natural ſons and daughters are now amongſt the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the Britiſh nobility.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarſe and indelicate. The court was a nurſery of vice, and the ſtage exhibited ſcenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England ſo well ſupplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmoniſed, refined, and rendered natural; and the days of Charles may be called the Auguſtan age of mathematics and natural philoſophy. Charles loved and underſtood the arts more than he encouraged or rewarded them, eſpecially thoſe of Engliſh growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedneſs, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the firſt Engliſh prince who formed a body of ſtanding forces, as guards to his perſon, it ought to be remembered, at the ſame time, that he carried the art of ſhip-building to the higheſt perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its fineſt improvements to his and his brother's knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. As to his religion, James, ſoon after his death, publiſhed to the world, that his brother, notwithſtanding his repeated profeſſions of regard to the proteſtant faith, was a papiſt, and died ſuch; of which there are now inconteſtable proofs.

All the oppoſition which, during the late reign, had ſhaken the throne, ſeems to have vaniſhed at the acceſſion of James II. The popular affection towards him was increaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all reſiſtance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almoſt ruined proteſtantiſm. The army and people ſupported him in cruſhing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and as ſuch had aſſumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and ſome hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the Weſt of England, exhibiting a ſcene of barbarity ſcarcely ever known in this country, by the inſtrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kirke, James deſperately reſolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-reſiſtance. The experiment failed him. He had recourſe to the moſt offenſive and at the ſame time moſt injudicious meaſures to render popery the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of diſpenſing with the known laws; he inſtituted an illegal eccleſiaſtical court; he openly received and admitted into his privy council the pope's emiſſaries, and gave them more reſpect than was due to the miniſters of a ſovereign prince. He ſent an embaſſy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people are almoſt beyond deſcription, and were diſapproved of by the pope himſelf, and all ſober Roman-catholics. His ſending to priſon, and proſecuting for a libel, ſeven biſhops, for preſenting a petition againſt

reading his declaration for liberty of conſcience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his beſt proteſtant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wiſhed well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and ſon-in-law of James, having married the princeſs Mary, that king's eldeſt daughter; and he at laſt embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, avowing it to be his deſign to reſtore the church and ſtate to their true rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends; and even his daughter the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George prince of Denmark, left him, and joined the prince of Orange. James might ſtill have reigned; but he was ſurrounded with French emiſſaries and ignorant Jeſuits, who wiſhed him not to reign rather than not to reſtore popery. They ſecretly perſuaded him to ſend his queen, and ſon, real or pretended, then but ſix months old, to France, and to follow them in perſon,—which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England; which event in Engliſh hiſtory is termed *the Revolution*.

It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported by England, at an expenſe ſhe had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns; and he gave his conſent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and ſecured; though the friends of liberty in general complained that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been inſiſted on, at a period ſo favourable to the enlargement and ſecurity of liberty, as a crown beſtowed by the free voice of the people. The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be ſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The revenue was therefore now divided: part was allotted for the current national ſervice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament: and part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given to the king, for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the juſt ſenſe the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution, for they never in other reſpects had been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ſhips, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, that year, nearly double what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which, in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increaſed to 101,032 tons. The increaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of England, was in the ſame proportion. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being ſucceſsful, required an enormous expenſe; and the Iriſh continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many Engliſh, who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being reſtored by conqueſt: and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne againſt James, who there loſt all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved ſuperior to that of England in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at

La Hogue,

Invaſions were threatened, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day againſt the government; and the ſupply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new reſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed, and every ſubject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the ſeveral counties. Thoſe who were the moſt loyal gave the higheſt valuations, and were the heavieſt taxed; and this prepoſterous burthen continues; but the greateſt and boldeſt operations in finances that ever took place was eſtabliſhed in that reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon the parliamentary ſecurities, and which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this ſcheme is ſaid to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His principal argument for ſuch a project was, that it would oblige the moneyed part of the nation to befriend the Revolution intereſt, becauſe, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by ſupporting that intereſt, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more induſtrious.

William, notwithſtanding the vaſt ſervice he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auſpices, particularly in the eſtabliſhment of the bank of England, and the re-coining the ſilver money, met with ſo many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually reſolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a ſpeech for that purpoſe, which he was prevailed upon to ſuppreſs. He long bore the affronts he met with, in hopes of being ſupported in his war with France; but at laſt, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryſwick, with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had loſt his queen *, but the government was continued in his perſon. After peace was reſtored, the commons obliged him to diſband his army, all but an inconſiderable number, and to diſmiſs his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of ſeeing the whole Spaniſh monarchy in poſſeſſion of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic meaſure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria. This treaty was highly reſented by the parliament, and ſome of his miniſtry were impeached for adviſing it. It was thought William ſaw his error when it was too late. His miniſters were acquitted from their impeachment; and the death of king James diſcovered the inſincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his ſon king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houſes paſſed the bill of abjura ion, and an addreſs for a war with France. The laſt and moſt glorious act of William's reign was his paſſing the bill for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover, on the 12th of June, 1701. His death was haſtened by a fall from his horſe, ſoon after he had renewed the grand alliance againſt France, on the 8th of March, 1702, in the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he ſeemed alſo ſometimes almoſt to loſe ſight of thoſe principles of liberty, for the ſupport of which he had been raiſed to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the Whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories. The former had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe who had acted the moſt inimical to their party, and the free principles of the conſtitution, as the marquis of

* She died of the ſmall-pox, Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.

Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and reſume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended to ſilence all inquiries into the guilt of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in the cruel perſecutions of the paſt reign, and to the obtaining ſuch an act of indemnity as effectually ſcreened every delinquent from the juſt retaliation of injured patriotiſm. The reſcue and preſervation of religion and public liberty were the chief glory of William's reign; for England under him ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land; and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to the then unheard-of ſum of 14,000,000l.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, by virtue of the act of ſettlement, and being the next proteſtant heir to her father James II. ſucceeded to the throne. As ſhe had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought ſhe would have deviated from his meaſures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has ſince been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice; and ſhe reſolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been impriſoned in the late reign on a ſuſpicion of Jacobitiſm, and whoſe wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and ſtateſman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No ſooner was he placed at the head of the Engliſh army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in conſequence of the intrigues of France, and at the ſame time reſenting the partition treaty, to which his conſent had not been aſked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV.; and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain; which laid the foundation of the family alliance between France and that nation. Philip's ſucceſſion was diſputed by the ſecond ſon of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himſelf the title of Charles III. and his cauſe was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers who joined in a confederacy againſt the houſe of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquiſition of the whole Spaniſh dominions.

The capital meaſure of continuing the war againſt France being determined on, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her miniſtry, who were for the moſt part Tories: and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading Whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treaſury. His ſon had married the earl of Marlborough's eldeſt daughter; and the earl could truſt no other with that important department.

In the courſe of the war, ſeveral glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was ſoon made duke of Marlborough. Thoſe of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the firſt effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the empire of Germany was ſaved from immediate deſtruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confeſſedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken priſoner, and ſent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beſides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the ſame time, the Engliſh admiral, ſir George Rooke, reduced Gibraltar, which ſtill remains in our poſſeſſion. The battle of Ramil-

lies, in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loſs of the enemy there has been variouſly reported; it is generally ſuppoſed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken priſoners; but the conſequences ſhowed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the ſtates of Flanders aſſembled at Ghent, and recogniſed Charles for their ſovereign, while the confederates took poſſeſſion of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, 1708, where they loſt 3000 on the field, and about 7000 taken priſoners: and the year after, September 11, 1709. the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet near Mons, after a bloody action, in which the French loſt 15,000 men. Theſe flattering ſucceſſes of the Engliſh were balanced, however, by great misfortunes.

The queen had ſent a very fine army to aſſiſt Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portugueſe, the Engliſh were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though ſome advantages were obtained at ſea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the diſgrace, of England. Prince George of Denmark, huſband to the queen, was then lord high-admiral. At the ſame time England felt ſeverely the ſcarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

As Lewis XIV. profeſſed a readineſs for peace, and ſued earneſtly for it, the Whigs at laſt gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg, 1710. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townſhend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. But all the offers of the latter were rejected by the duke and his aſſociates, as only deſigned to amuſe and divide the allies; and the war was continued.

The unreaſonable haughtineſs of the Engliſh plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg (as ſome term it), and the then expected change of the miniſtry in England, ſaved France; and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war, in the end, if continued, muſt prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "the church was in danger," which, though groundleſs, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthleſs preacher, had eſpouſed this clamour in one of his ſermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their ſtrength in this man's cauſe. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to paſs upon him only a very ſmall cenſure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the ducheſs of Marlborough, and the Whig adminiſtration. Her friends loſt their places, which were ſupplied by Tories; and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a ceſſation of arms; but they were diſregarded by the queen's allies in the Britiſh pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greateſt imprudence, and excited the aſtoniſhment of all Europe. So numerous had been his ſucceſſes, and ſo great his reputation, that his very name was almoſt equi-

valent to an army. But the honour and intereſt of the nation were ſacrificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Maſham, a relation of the ducheſs of Marlborough, who had ſupplanted her benefactreſs, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew ſenſible they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh. In ſhort, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed of the particular ceſſions made by the French, eſpecially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been ſtill more indefenſible and ſhameful than it was, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joſeph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the dilatorineſs, if not bad faith, of the Engliſh allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war; not to mention the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom. Such was the ſtate of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their complexion, that the queen was, by ſome ſecret influence, which never has yet been diſcovered, and was even concealed from ſome of her miniſters, inclined to call her brother to the ſucceſſion. The reſt of the queen's life was rendered uneaſy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her miniſters. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and ſhe was obliged haſtily to diſmiſs her lord-treaſurer, when ſhe fell into a lethargic diſorder, which carried her off the firſt of Auguſt 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign *. Notwithſtanding the exhauſted ſtate of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions; ſo firm was the dependence of the people upon the ſecurity of parliament.

Anne had no ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry any important reſolve into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo indecifive a ſtate, that, upon her death, the ſucceſſion took place in terms of the act of ſettlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, ſon of the princeſs Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great-Britain,—his mother, who would have been next in ſucceſſion, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt the Tory miniſtry, moſt of whom he diſplaced. This did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; but many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily ſuppreſſed the beginning of the next year.

* With her ended the line of the Stuarts, who, from the acceſſion of James I. anno 1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 345 years from the acceſſion of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, ſon of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's deceaſe, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germain's, and for ſome time treated as ſuch by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He reſided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romiſh faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two ſons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued for ſome time, and afterwards reſided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died lately. Henry, his ſecond ſon, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York.

After all, the nation was in ſuch a diſpoſition that the miniſtry durſt not venture to call a new parliament; and the members of that which was ſitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to ſeven years; which is thought to have been the greateſt ſtretch of parliamentary power ever known. Several other extraordinary meaſures took place about the ſame time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent ſpeaker, and member of parliament, was ſent to the Tower for ſaying that the king's ſpeech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than that of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for compoſing a ſilly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadverſion. The truth is, the Whig miniſtry were exceſſively jealous of every thing that ſeemed to affect their maſter's title: and George I. though a ſagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too ſubſervient to his continental connections, which were very various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muſcovy about their German concerns; and, had not Charles XII. king of Sweden, been killed ſo critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by that northern conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpoſe,—he being incenſed at George, as elector of Hanover, for purchaſing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718 George quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed between Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States General; and his admiral, ſir George Byng, by his orders, deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet at Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was ſoon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national puniſhment, different from plague, peſtilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the ſudden riſe of the South Sea ſtock, one of the trading companies; but of this we have already given an account, under the article SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

The Jacobites thought to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent at the South-Sea ſcheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day increaſed. One Layer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treaſon. Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction were apprehended on ſuſpicion: but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord biſhop of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee, and ſeat in parliament, and baniſhed for life. There was ſome irregularity in the proceedings againſt him; and therefore the juſtice of the biſhop's ſentence has been queſtioned, though there is little or no reaſon to doubt there was ſufficient proof of his guilt.

So fluctuating was the ſtate of Europe at this time, that, in September 1725, a freſh treaty was concluded at Hanover, between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A ſquadron was ſent to the Baltic, to hinder the Ruſſians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the Weſt Indies, to watch the Spaniſh plate-fleets. This laſt was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and moſt of his men periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes, and the hulks of his ſhips rotted ſo as to render them unfit for ſervice. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They loſt near 10,000 men in the ſiege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raiſe.

A quarrel with the emperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of

any that could happen; and though an oppoſition in the houſe of commons was formed by ſir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more laviſh in granting money and ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel. Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Oſnaburg, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for an incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects, by which it was reckoned that almoſt a million and a half was won and loſt; and for the great alteration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which the Engliſh took in the affairs of the continent. The inſtitution of the ſinking fund, for diminiſhing the national debt, took place likewiſe at this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better underſtood than formerly, and the ſtate of manufactures began to ſhift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal diſtribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to ſubſiſt in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their eſtates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died; and ſome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown, that ſir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe, could another perſon have been found equally capable to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. During his long adminiſtration he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power: and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people without-doors, which might have either produced an inſurrection, or endangered his intereſt in the next general election.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him, however, into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American ſeas, and the French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and they intereſted themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſcheme, and paſſing the *Gin Act* in the year 1736, increaſed the minority in the houſe of commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as good ſpeakers as ever had ſat in a parliament; and taking advantage of the increaſing complaints againſt the Spaniards, they attacked the miniſter with great ſtrength of argument and with great eloquence. In juſtice to Walpole, it ſhould be obſerved, that he filled the courts of juſtice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perverſion of the law of the kingdoms. He was ſo far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous abuſe that was thrown out againſt him. He gave way to one or two proſecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them; but it is certain, that the preſs of England never was more

open and free than during his adminiſtration. And as to his pacific ſyſtem, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to ſupport it, by the increaſe of her trade, and the improvements of her manufactures.

Queen Caroline, conſort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the miniſter: but ſhe died November 20th, 1737, when a variance ſubſiſted between the king and his ſon, the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the proviſion to which his birth entitled him; and he put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs, that it was generally foreſeen Walpole's power was drawing to a criſis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the miniſter, was ſent, in 1739, with a ſquadron of ſix ſhips to the Weſt Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto Bello; but being a hot, intractable man, he miſcarried in his other attempts, eſpecially that upon Carthagena, in which ſome thouſands of Britiſh lives were wantonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in Vernon's ſucceſs, and afterwards imputed his miſcarriages to the miniſter's ſtarving the war, by with-holding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, ſo prevalent was the intereſt of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the miniſter; and, after a few trying diviſions, he retired from the houſe, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th reſigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loſs of his miniſter with the greateſt equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and poſts of diſtinction, upon the heads of the oppoſition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion of his daughter to all the Auſtrian dominions), through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent cauſes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able but headſtrong miniſter, whom George had made his ſecretary of ſtate, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himſelf at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743; but would not ſuffer his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, which was thought to proceed from tenderneſs for his electoral dominions.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expenſive war both againſt the French and Spaniards; and her enemies thought to avail themſelves of the general diſcontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, was thought by ſome to exceed the bounds of decency. This naturally ſuggeſted to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who reſided at Rome; and he agreed that his ſon Charles, who was a ſprightly young man, ſhould repair to France, from whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped with a few followers, in a frigate, to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, between the iſlands of Mull and Sky, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſembled his followers, and publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is neceſſary, before we relate the true cauſe of this enterpriſe, to make a ſhort retroſpect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon, and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that about 20,000 Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen periſhed in the impracticable attempt on Car-

thagena, and by the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been ſpent in negotiations with the courts of Peterſburg and Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of little or no ſervice to Great Britain: ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had given an opportunity to the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with but little loſs; and ſoon after, the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war, carried on a moſt lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act againſt the French till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition; and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it in ſuch a manner, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earneſt. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barrier of the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raiſe the ſiege; but, by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, and the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along held a ſecret correſpondence with France, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his beſt men; though it is generally allowed that his diſpoſitions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of miſfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England with an immenſe treaſure (about a million ſterling), which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortreſs of Louiſburg, in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt, 1745, when the Pretender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland followers, ſurpriſed and diſarmed a party of the king's troops in the weſtern Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The government never ſo thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the ſupport of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for ſuch there was at that time in England) had laid a deep ſcheme of diſtreſſing the Bank; but common danger aboliſhed all diſtinctions, and united them in the defence of one intereſt, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their addreſs to the king, to ſupport it by receiving bank notes in payment. This ſeaſonable meaſure ſaved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not reſtore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, ſon-in-law to his majeſty George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty, and the ſpirit of the people of the United Provinces, raiſed to be their ſtadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maeſtricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made priſoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been explained. The allies ſuffered other diſgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was neceſſary to ſave the duke and his army from total deſtruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſh at ſea, under

the command of the admirals Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the Engliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful as could have been wiſhed under rear-admiral Boſcawen in the Eaſt Indies. In this ſtate of affairs, the ſucceſſes of the French and Engliſh during the war may be ſaid to have been balanced, and both miniſters turned their thoughts to peace.

The preliminaries for peace were ſigned in April, 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October; the baſis of which was the reſtitution, on both ſides, of all places taken during the war. The next year the intereſt of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven years, after which the whole was to ſtand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldeſt ſtroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, conſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a ſmall ineffectual oppoſition, continued their money in the funds; and a few who ſold out even made intereſt to have it replaced on the ſame ſecurity, or were paid off their principal ſums out of the ſinking fund.

A new treaty of commerce was ſigned at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in conſideration of 100,000l. the South Sea company gave up all their future claims to the aſſiento contract, by virtue of which that company had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died, univerſally lamented, his royal highneſs Frederic, prince of Wales. In May, 1751, an act paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old ſtyle was aboliſhed, and the new ſtyle eſtabliſhed, to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubjects. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September, 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the firſt of January. In 1753, the famous act paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages.

The open encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back ſettlements in America, and the diſpoſitions they made for ſending over vaſt bodies of veteran troops to ſupport thoſe encroachments, produced wonderful ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſcawen was ordered, with eleven ſhips of the line, beſides a frigate and two regiments, to ſail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping up the river St. Laurence, by the Straits of Belleiſle. No ſooner was it known that hoſtilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped, and brought into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that, before the end of the year 1755, above 500 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8000 of their beſt ſailors, were brought into the kingdom.

In July, 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciouſly ſent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians near Fort du Quêne (now called Fort Pitt, or Pittſburg); but major general Johnſon defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

In proportion as the ſpirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments which were prepared for carrying on the war, they were ſunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been ſent

out with a ſquadron, at leaſt equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Galliſſoniere, and that at laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by general Blakeney. The public outcry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot at Portſmouth for not doing all that was in his power againſt the enemy.

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as ſecretary of ſtate, at the head of adminiſtration. He had long been known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved himſelf to be as ſpirited a miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean had no conſequence but the loſs of Fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vaſt ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Europe and America. The ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies, under colonel Clive, are almoſt incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Babar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French intereſt, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob, Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the great extent of territory which the Engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France, than which nothing could be better calculated to reſtore the ſpirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invaſion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itſelf; and the deſcent was to be made at Rochefort under general ſir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions for this expedition. It failed on the 8th of September 1757; but admiral Hawke brought both the ſea and land forces back on the 6th of October, to St. Helen's, without any attempt having been made to land on the coaſt of France.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a moſt powerful army, the Engliſh parliament voted large ſupplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſervation, but was ſo powerfully preſſed by a ſuperior army, that he found himſelf obliged to lay down his arms; and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took poſſeſſion of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a ſcarcity, next to a famine, raged in England; and the Heſſian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend the kingdom from an invaſion threatened by the French, remained ſtill in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majeſty and the king of Pruſſia: in conſequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000l. to his Pruſſian majeſty; and alſo large ſums, amounting in the whole to nearly two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttle, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards ſo burthenſome to England, was intended to unite the proteſtant intereſt in Germany.

George II. with the conſent of his Pruſſian majeſty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Cloſterſeven, ordered his Hanoverian ſubjects to reſume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a Pruſſian general, who inſtantly drove the French out of Hanover: and the duke of Marlborough, after the Engliſh had repeatedly inſulted the French coaſts by deſtroying their ſtores and ſhipping at St. Malo and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with

12,000 Britiſh troops, which were afterwards increaſed to 25,000. A war enſued, in the courſe of which the Engliſh every where performed wonders, and were every where victorious; but nothing deciſive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the moſt glorious, perhaps, in the Engliſh annals, in which about 7000 Engliſh defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops, conributed nothing to the concluſion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The expenſes of the war were borne with cheerfulneſs, and the activity and ſpirit of Mr. Pitt's adminiſtration were greatly applauded. Admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt, in Auguſt 1758, reduced and demoliſhed Louiſburg in North America, which had been reſtored to the French by the treaty at Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the ſcourge of the Britiſh trade, and took five or ſix French ſhips of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Quêne, in the ſame quarter, fell alſo into the hands of the Engliſh; acquiſitions that far overbalanced a check which the Engliſh received at Ticonderoga, and the loſs of above 300 of the Engliſh guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coaſt of France.

The Engliſh affairs in the Eaſt Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pococke had engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the Bien-aimé, of 74 guns, was ſo much damaged that they run her on ſhore; that on the 3d of Auguſt following, he engaged the French fleet a ſecond time near Pondicherry, when, after a briſk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the ſail they could make, and got ſafe into the road of Pondicherry; and that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in thoſe parts, marched to beſiege Madras, which was defended by the Engliſh colonels Lawrence and Draper; and after a briſk cannonade, which laſted till the 16th of February following, the Engliſh having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raiſe the ſiege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the iſland of Gorée, on the coaſt of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved ſucceſsful. One of them was againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of Canada. The command was given, by the miniſter's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was oppoſed, with far ſuperior force, by Montcalme, the beſt and moſt ſucceſsful general the French had. Though the ſituation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalme never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounted incredible difficulties: he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himſelf killed, as was Montcalme; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reſerved for brigadier-general (now lord viſcount) Townſhend.

General Amherſt, who was the firſt Engliſh general in command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all

Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Lawrence. Mr. Amherſt in this expedition was ſo well provided with every thing that could make it ſucceſsful, that there ſcarcely appeared any chance for its miſcarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became ſubject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Great Britain: but on the 8th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the Straits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaure of 74, Le Téméraire of 74, and Le Modeſte of 74 guns; and burnt L'Océan of 80, and Le Redoutable of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night; and on Nov. 20, ſir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Theſée of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were ſunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Héros of 74 guns, were burnt, and afterwards the Juſte of 74 periſhed in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Vilaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt, on this occaſion, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution of 74 guns, which ran aſhore in the chaſe. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their invaſion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had, with three ſloops of war, alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and actually made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ſhips, inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſquadron. In ſhort, Great Britain now reigned as ſole miſtreſs of the main, and ſucceeded in every meaſure that had been projected for her own ſafety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued ſtill as undeciſive as it was expenſive; and many in England began to conſider it now as foreign to the internal intereſts of Great Britain. The French again and again ſhowed diſpoſitions for treating; and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterling yearly, inclined the Britiſh miniſter to liſten to their propoſals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died ſuddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart) full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now George III. eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehenſible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could admit that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was ſometimes ill enough adviſed to declare ſo much in his ſpeeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was not very acceſſible to converſation; and therefore it was no wonder, that, having left Germany after he had attained to man's eſtate, he ſtill retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with ſir Robert Walpole with great indifference, and ſhowed very little concern at the ſubſequent revolu-

tions among his ſervants. In his perſonal diſpoſition he was paſſionate, but placable, fearleſs of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he ſerved when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary courſe of juſtice; and though his reign was diſtracted by party, the courts of juſtice were never better filled than under him.

King George III. aſcended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour; he was in the bloom of youth, in his perſon tall and comely, and, at the time of his acceſſion, Great Britain was in the higheſt degree of reputation and proſperity, and the moſt ſalutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The firſt acts of his reign ſeemed alſo calculated to convince the public that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon; as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry, in the Eaſt Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general Monkton, lord Rollo, and ſir James Douglas; and in 1762, the iſland of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms with inconceivable rapidity.

As his majeſty could not eſpouſe a Roman catholic, he was prevented from intermarrying into any of the great families of Europe; he therefore choſe a wife from the houſe of Mecklenburg Strelitz, the head of a ſmall but ſovereign ſtate in the north-weſt of Germany; and the conduct of his excellent conſort has hitherto been ſuch as moſt highly to juſtify his choice. She was conveyed to England in great pomp, and the nuptials were celebrated on the very night of her arrival, viz. Sept. 8, 1761; and on the 22d of the ſame month the ceremony of the coronation was performed with great magnificence in Weſtminſter-abbey.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war againſt France with ſuch eminent ability, and who had received the beſt information of the hoſtile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, propoſed in council an immediate declaration of war againſt that kingdom. But he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which declared themſelves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law, earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was ſuppoſed that the earl of Bute, who had a conſiderable ſhare in directing the education of the king, had acquired an aſcendency in the royal favour*. Mr. Pitt, however, ſaid, "that, as he was called to the miniſtry by the voice of the people, to whom he conſidered himſelf as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a ſituation which made him reſponſible for meaſures that he was not allowed to guide." He therefore reſigned the ſeals, and lord Temple alſo gave up the poſt which he held in the adminiſtration. But the next day the king ſettled a penſion of three thouſand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the ſame time a title was conferred upon his lady and her iſſue; and the penſion was to be continued for three lives.

The war ſtill continued to be carried on with vigour after the reſignation of Mr Pitt, and the plans were purſued that he had previouſly con-

* It was on the 25th of March, 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate; and on the 5th of October following Mr. Pitt reſigned the ſeals.

certed. Lord Egremont was appointed to ſucceed him, as ſecretary for the ſouthern department. It was at length alſo found indiſpenſably neceſſary to engage in a war with Spain; the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being generally known; and accordingly war was declared againſt that kingdom, on the 4th of January, 1762. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt Indies, after a ſiege of two months and eight days. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million ſterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treaſure paſſed in triumph through Weſtminſter to the bank in the very hour he was born. The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the Spaniards, was ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine iſlands in the Eaſt Indies, under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards employed their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the Britiſh arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, is not eaſy to decide. It certainly embarraſſed his Britannic majeſty, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by ſea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now reſumed; and the enemy at laſt offered ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſſible and adequate on the occaſion. The defection of the Ruſſians from the confederacy againſt the king of Pruſſia, and his conſequent ſucceſſes, produced a ceſſation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February, 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal: March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris: the 22d, the peace was ſolemnly proclaimed at Weſtminſter and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houſes.

By this treaty the extenſive province of Canada, with the iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great-Britain; alſo the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this ſide the Miſſiſſippi (except the town of New Orleans, with a ſmall diſtrict round it), were ſurrendered to us by France and Spain, in conſideration of reſtoring to Spain the iſland of Cuba; and to France the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Deſirade; and in conſideration of our granting to the French the two ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon on the coaſt of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretenſions to the neutral iſland of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the iſlands of Grenada and the Grenadillas, and quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the ſettlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engroſſed the whole gum-trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a ſmall iſland of little value. The article that relates to the Eaſt Indies was dictated by the directors of the Engliſh company, which reſtores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they ſhall maintain nei-

ther forts nor forces in the province of Bengal; and the city of Manilla was reſtored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewiſe, the French reſtored to us the iſland of Minorca, and we reſtored to them the iſland of Belleiſle. In Germany, after ſix years ſpent in marches and counter-marches, numerous ſkirmiſhes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expenſe of thirty millions ſterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual reſtitution and oblivion ſhould take place, and each party ſit down at the end of the war in the ſame ſituation in which they began it. And peace was reſtored between Portugal and Spain, both ſides to be upon the ſame footing as before the war.

The war to which a period was now put was the moſt brilliant, and diſtinguiſhed with the moſt glorious events, in the Britiſh annals. No national prejudices or party diſputes then exiſted. The ſame truly Britiſh ſpirit by which the miniſter was animated, fired the breaſt of the ſoldier and ſeaman. The nation had then arrived at a degree of wealth unknown to former ages; and the moneyed man, pleaſed with the aſpect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the miniſter, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purſe. The ſums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raiſed by a few citizens of London, upon a ſhort notice, for the ſervice of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, were no leſs aſtoniſhing to Europe, than the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleets and armies in every quarter of the world.

But the peace, though it received the ſanction of a majority of both houſes of parliament, was far from giving univerſal ſatisfaction to the people. And from this period various cauſes contributed to occaſion a great diſcontent to prevail throughout the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's meſſengers entered the houſe of John Wilkes, eſq. member of parliament for Ayleſbury, and ſeized his perſon, by virtue of a warrant from the ſecretary of ſtate, which directed them to ſeize "the authors, printers, and publiſhers of a ſeditious and treaſonable paper, entitled the North Briton, N° 45." The papers publiſhed under this title ſeverely arraigned the conduct of the adminiſtration, and repreſented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the perſon from whom meaſures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained ſtrictures on the king's ſpeech. Mr. Wilkes was ſuſpected to be the author, but his name was not mentioned in the warrant by which he was apprehended. He objected to being taken into cuſtody by ſuch a warrant, alleging that it was illegal. However, he was forcibly carried before the ſecretaries of ſtate for examination, and they committed him cloſe priſoner to the Tower, his papers being alſo ſeized. He was likewiſe deprived of his commiſſion as colonel of the Buckinghamſhire militia. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought up to the court of Common-Pleas; and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be diſcharged. This affair made a great noiſe; people of all ranks intereſted themſelves in it; and Weſtminſter-hall reſounded with acclamations when he was ſet at liberty. An information, however, was filed againſt him in the court of King's Bench, at his majeſty's ſuit, as author of the North Briton, N° 45. On the firſt day of the meeting of parliament after theſe tranſactions, Mr. Wilkes ſtood up in his place, and made a ſpeech, in which he complained to the houſe, that in his perſon the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his impriſonment,

the plundering of his houſe, and the ſeizure of his papers. The ſame day a meſſage was ſent to acquaint the houſe of commons with the information his majeſty had received, that John Wilkes, eſq. a member of that houſe, was the author of a moſt ſeditious and dangerous libel, and the meaſures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde Park, between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Martyn, another member of parliament, and ſecretary of the treaſury, in which Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a piſtol bullet. Both houſes of parliament ſoon concurred in voting the North Briton, N° 45, to be a falſe, ſcandalous, and ſeditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great oppoſition from the populace; and Mr. Harley, one of the ſheriffs who attended, was wounded, and obliged to take ſhelter in the manſion-houſe. Another proſecution was commenced againſt Mr. Wilkes, for having cauſed an obſcene and profane poem to be printed, entitled "An Eſſay on Woman." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed: and it did not appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he ſhould continue to be proſecuted with the utmoſt rigour, when his wound was in ſome degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was ſoon after expelled the houſe of commons; verdicts were alſo given againſt him, both on account of the North Briton and the Eſſay on Woman; and towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed. Sundry other perſons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publiſhing the North Briton; but ſome of them obtained verdicts againſt the king's meſſengers for falſe impriſonment.

In the mean time, the earl of Bute, who had been made firſt lord of the treaſury, reſigned that office, and was ſucceeded by Mr. George Grenville: and under this gentleman's adminiſtration an act was paſſed, ſaid to have been framed by him, which was productive of the moſt pernicious conſequences to Great Britain; "an act for laying a *ſtamp duty* in the Britiſh colonies of North America," which received the royal aſſent on the 22d of March, 1765. Some other injudicious previous regulations had alſo been made, under pretence of preventing ſmuggling in America; but which in effect ſo cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and the mother country. As ſoon as it was known in North America that the *ſtamp-act* was paſſed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own repreſentatives in their provincial aſſemblies, they loudly aſſerted that the Britiſh parliament, in which they were not repreſented, had no right to tax them. Indeed, the ſame doctrine had been maintained in the Britiſh parliament, when the ſtamp-act was under conſideration: on which occaſion it was ſaid, that it was the birth right of the inhabitants of the colonies, even as the deſcendants of Engliſhmen, not to be taxed by any but their own repreſentatives; that, ſo far from being actually repreſented, they were not even virtually repreſented there, as the meaneſt inhabitants of Great Britain are, in conſequence of their intimate connection with thoſe who are actually repreſented; and that therefore the attempt to tax the colonies in the Britiſh parliament was oppreſſive and unconſtitutional. On the other hand, it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reaſon and juſtice, to contribute towards the expenſe of the mother-country. "Thoſe children of our own planting," ſaid Mr. George Grenville, ſpeaking of the Americans, "nouriſhed by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree

of ſtrength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expenſe which we lie under?"

When the ſtamp-act, printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were likewiſe committed, with a view of preventing the operations of the ſtamp-act; and aſſociations were alſo formed in the different colonies, whereby the people bound themſelves not to import or purchaſe any Britiſh manufactures, till that act ſhould be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies alſo eſtabliſhed committees from every colony to correſpond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from theſe committees to meet IN CONGRESS at New York. They aſſembled together in that city, in October 1765; and this was the firſt congreſs held on the American continent.

Theſe commotions in America occaſioned ſo great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to diſmiſs his miniſters. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury; and ſome of his lordſhip's friends ſucceeded to the vacant places. In March, 1766, an act was paſſed for repealing the American ſtamp-act. This was countenanced and ſupported by the new miniſtry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet ſpoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He alſo aſſerted, that the profits of Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, was two millions a year.

At the time that the ſtamp-act was repealed, an act was alſo paſſed for ſecuring the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham, and his friends, continued in adminiſtration but a ſhort time; though, during their continuance in power, ſeveral public meaſures were adopted, tending to relieve the burthens of the people, and to the ſecurity of their liberties. But on the 30th of July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, ſecretary of ſtate, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townſhend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, afterwards created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy ſeal; but that eminent ſtateſman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the houſe of commons, greatly leſſened his weight and influence. Indeed, this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and ſundry changes followed. Mr. C. Townſhend, who was a gentleman of great abilities and eloquence, made for ſome time a conſiderable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was ſupplied by lord North, who afterwards became firſt lord of the treaſury, and obtained a great aſcendency in the adminiſtration.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a conſiderable time reſided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The limits of our work will not permit us to enter into all the particulars reſpecting the proſecution of this gentleman, and the ſubſequent tranſactions concerning him: for theſe we muſt refer to our quarto edition. It is well known that verdicts were found againſt him on account of the North Briton, and for the indecent poem, "Eſſay on Woman;" that he ſuffered a long impriſonment of two years, and paid two fines of 500l. each; that he diſplayed great abilities during his conteſts with the miniſtry, and was choſen member for the county of Middleſex, on the 28th of March, 1768. He was alſo again expelled

for being the author of ſome prefatory remarks on a letter which he publiſhed, written by one of the ſecretaries of ſtate to the chairman of the quarter-ſeſſions at Lambeth, in which the ſecretary had recommended to the magiſtrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's Fields, their calling in the aſſiſtance of the military, and employing them *effectually*, if there ſhould be occaſion. In the vote for his expulſion, his former offences, for which he was now ſuffering impriſonment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ was ordered to be iſſued for the election of a member for the county of Middleſex.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was proſecuted only increaſed his popularity, which was alſo much augmented by the ſpirit and firmneſs which on every occaſion he diſplayed. Before his expulſion, he had been choſen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected, at Brentford, member for the county of Middleſex, without oppoſition. The return having been made to the houſe, it was reſolved, that Mr. Wilkes, having been expelled that ſeſſion, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was again declared void, and a new writ iſſued for another. He was once more unanimouſly re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the houſe of commons. After this, a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrel, in order to recommend himſelf to the court, vacated the ſeat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himſelf a candidate for the county of Middleſex. Though the whole weight of court intereſt was thrown into the ſcale in this gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared againſt him on the day of election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrel only 236. Notwithſtanding this, two days after the election, it was reſolved in the houſe of commons, that Mr. Luttrel ought to have been returned a knight of the ſhire for the county of Middleſex; and the deputy clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by eraſing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inſerting that of colonel Luttrel in its place. The latter accordingly took his ſeat in parliament; but this was thought ſo groſs a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general diſcontent, and loud complaints were made againſt it in every part of the kingdom.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's impriſonment was expired in the year 1771, he was choſen one of the ſheriffs for London and Middleſex; and was afterwards again choſen member for the county of Middleſex in the ſubſequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his ſeat there; in the year 1775, he executed the office of lord-mayor of the city of London; and was afterwards elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North's adminiſtration, on Mr. Wilkes's motion, all the declarations, orders, and reſolutions of the houſe of commons reſpecting his election for the county of Middleſex were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that houſe, "as being ſubverſive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." And it ſhould be remembered, that, in conſequence of his manly and ſpirited conteſts with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to ſuch warrants, and to the unlawful ſeiſure of an Engliſhman's papers by ſtate meſſengers.

After the repeal of the ſtamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there: but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the Britiſh parliament, though, beſides the ex-

perience of the ill ſucceſs of the ſtamp-act, governor Pownal, a gentleman well acquainted with the diſpoſition of the coloniſts, ſaid in the houſe of commons, in 1767, "It is a fact which this houſe ought to be appriſed of in all its extent, that the people of America, univerſally, unitedly, and unalterably, are reſolved not to ſubmit to any internal tax impoſed upon them by any legiſlature, in which they have not a ſhare by repreſentatives of their own election." He added, "this claim muſt not be underſtood as though it were only the pretences of party leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the viſions of ſpeculative enthuſiaſts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which muſt ſubſide; as though it were only temporary and partial:—it is the cool, deliberate, principled maxim of every man of buſineſs in the country." The event verified the juſtice of theſe obſervations; yet the ſame year, an act was paſſed, laying certain duties on paper, glaſs, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies, for the purpoſe of raiſing a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal theſe duties, excepting that on tea; but as it was not the *amount* of the duties, but the *right* of the parliament of Great Britain to impoſe taxes in America, which was the ſubject of diſpute, the repealing the other duties anſwered no purpoſe while that on tea remained; which accordingly became a freſh ſubject of conteſt between the mother-country and the colonies.

In order to induce the Eaſt-India company to become inſtrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was paſſed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty free, to all places whatſoever. Several ſhips were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who alſo appointed agents there for the diſpoſal of that commodity. This was conſidered by the Americans as a ſcheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was eaſily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the cuſtody of the conſignees, no aſſociations, or other meaſures, would be ſufficient to prevent its ſale and conſumption: and it was not to be ſuppoſed, that, when taxation was eſtabliſhed in one inſtance, it would be reſtrained in others. Theſe ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was reſolved by the coloniſts to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongſt them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ſhips laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boſton, in December, 1773, a number of armed men, under the diſguiſe of Mohawk Indians, boarded theſe ſhips, and in a few hours diſcharged their whole cargoes of tea into the ſea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some ſmaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a ſimilar fate at Boſton, and a few other places; but in general, the commiſſioners for the ſale of that commodity were obliged to relinquiſh their employments; and the maſters of the tea-veſſels, from an apprehenſion of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war; but the perſons in the ſervice of government there were obliged to conſent to its being locked up from uſe. And in South Carolina ſome was thrown into the river, as at Boſton, and the reſt put into damp warehouſes, where it periſhed.

Theſe proceedings in America excited ſo much indignation in the government of England, that, on the 31ſt of March, 1774, an act was paſſed for removing the cuſtom-houſe officers from the town of Boſton, and ſhutting up the port. Another act was ſoon after paſſed "for better

regulating the government in the province of Maſſachuſetts Bay." The deſign of this act was to alter the conſtitution of that province as it ſtood by the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to veſt the nomination of the counſellors, judges, and magiſtrates of all kinds, including ſheriffs, in the crown, and in ſome caſes in the king's governor, and all to be removable at the pleaſure of the crown. Another act was alſo paſſed, which was conſidered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconſtitutional, empowering the governor of Maſſachuſetts Bay to ſend perſons accuſed of crimes there to be tried in England for ſuch offences. Some time after, an act was likewiſe paſſed "for making more effectual proviſion for the government of the province of Quebec," which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legiſlative council was to be eſtabliſhed for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation; which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleaſure; and his majeſty's Canadian Roman-catholic ſubjects were entitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were alſo eſtabliſhed in civil caſes, and the Engliſh laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the popiſh clergy were inveſted with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No aſſembly of the people, as in other Britiſh colonies, was appointed,—it being ſaid in the act, that it was then inexpedient: but the king was to erect ſuch courts of criminal, civil, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, as he ſhould think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewiſe extended, by the act, thouſands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was ſaid, a government little better than deſpotic was eſtabliſhed throughout an extenſive country.

The meaſures of government reſpecting America had ſo univerſally exaſperated the coloniſts, that provincial or town meetings were held in every part of the continent, in which they avowed their intentions of oppoſing, in the moſt vigorous manner, the meaſures of adminiſtration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the ſubſcribers bound themſelves, in the moſt ſolemn manner, and in the preſence of God, to ſuſpend all commercial intercourſe with Great Britain from the laſt day of the month of Auguſt, 1774, until the Boſton port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repealed, and the colony of Maſſachuſetts Bay fully reſtored to its chartered rights. Other tranſactions ſucceeded; and the flame continued to increaſe and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of the country which ſtretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congreſs, which was to be held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September, 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one, who repreſented the ſeveral Engliſh colonies; of New Hampſhire (2 delegates), Maſſachuſetts Bay (4), Rhode Iſland and Providence plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jerſey (4), Pennſylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy, and ſent deputies to the Congreſs.

They drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their ſeveral grievances, and ſolicited his majeſty to grant them peace, liberty, and ſafety. They likewiſe publiſhed an addreſs to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congreſs broke up on the 26th of October, having reſolved, that another congreſs ſhould be held in

the ſame place on the 10th of May following, unleſs the grievances of which they complained ſhould be redreſſed before that time; and they recommended to all the colonies to chooſe deputies, as ſoon as poſſible, for that purpoſe.

Shortly after theſe events, ſome meaſures were propoſed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a ſtop to the commotions which unhappily ſubſiſted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm ſtate of health, appeared in the houſe of lords, and expreſſed in the ſtrongeſt terms his diſapprobation of the whole ſyſtem of American meaſures. He alſo made a motion for immediately recalling the troops from Boſton, as a meaſure which ſhould be inſtantly adopted; urging, that an hour then loſt, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years of calamity. He alleged that this conciliatory meaſure would be well-timed; and, as a mark of affection and good-will on our ſide, would remove all jealouſy and apprehenſion on the other, and inſtantaneouſly produce the happieſt effects to both. His lordſhip's motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 againſt 18; as was alſo a bill which he brought in ſoon after for ſettling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. The methods propoſed in the houſe of commons for promoting an accommodation met alſo with a ſimilar fate. The number of his majeſty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was paſſed for reſtraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fiſhery on the Banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the houſe of commons, by lord North, firſt lord of the treaſury, for ſuſpending the exerciſe of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the Britiſh parliament, in ſuch of the colonies as ſhould, in their general aſſemblies, raiſe ſuch contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to ſome provincial aſſemblies: but it was rejected by them as deluſive and unſatisfactory, and only calculated to diſunite them. The petition from the congreſs to the king was ordered by his majeſty to be laid before the parliament; whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, ſolicited to be heard at the bar of the houſe of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in ſupport of that petition; but their application was rejected; it being ſaid, that the American congreſs was no legal aſſembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the firſt blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New England. This was occaſioned by general Gage ſending a body of troops to deſtroy ſome military ſtores that were at Concord. They ſucceeded in their deſign, but were extremely haraſſed, and forced to a quick retreat; 65 of them were killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 made priſoners. The Americans were computed not to have loſt more than 60, including killed and wounded. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia inveſted the town of Boſton, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmoſt diſpatch; and a ſtop was almoſt every-where put to the exportation of proviſions. The continental congreſs met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May 1775, as propoſed, and ſoon adopted ſuch meaſures as confirmed the people in their reſolutions to oppoſe the Britiſh government to the utmoſt. Among their firſt acts, were reſolutions for the raiſing of an army, and the eſtabliſhment of a large paper currency for its payment. They aſſumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were ſecurities for realiſing the nominal value of this currency.

They alſo ſtrictly prohibited the ſupplying of the Britiſh fiſheries with any kind of proviſions; and, to render this order the more effectual, ſtopt all exportation to thoſe colonies, iſlands, and places, which ſtill retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, ſurpriſed the garriſons of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Theſe fortreſſes were taken without the loſs of a man on either ſide: and the provincials found in the forts a conſiderable number of pieces of cannon, beſides mortars, and ſundry kinds of military ſtores. The force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boſton from England of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with conſiderable reinforcements. But the continental congreſs were ſo little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Maſſachuſetts Bay was diſſolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the eſtabliſhment of a new government, by electing a governor, aſſiſtants, and houſe of aſſembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

Our limits will not permit us here to relate, as in the quarto edition, all the particulars of this fatal war. We can only mention ſome of the moſt important tranſactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunker's Hill, near Boſton, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loſs of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. After this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, oppoſite to it, on their ſide of Charlestown neck; ſo that the troops were as cloſely inveſted in that peninſula as they had been in Boſton. About this time the congreſs appointed George Waſhington, eſq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired conſiderable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the laſt war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They alſo publiſhed a declaration, in which they ſtyled themſelves, "The Repreſentatives of the United Colonies of North America," and aſſigned their reaſons for taking up arms. It was written in a very animated ſtrain, and contained the following paſſage: "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birthright, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; for the protection of our property, acquired ſolely by the honeſt induſtry of our forefathers and ourſelves; againſt violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We ſhall lay them down when hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on the part of the aggreſſors, and all danger of their being renewed ſhall be removed, and not before." A ſecond petition to the king was voted by the congreſs, in which they earneſtly ſolicited his majeſty to adopt ſome method of putting a ſtop to the unhappy conteſt between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was preſented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennſylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, ſecretary of ſtate for the American department; but Mr. Penn was ſoon after informed, that no anſwer would be given to it. The refuſal of the king to give an anſwer to this petition, for near three millions of people, by their repreſentatives, contributed exceedingly towards farther exaſperating the minds of the Americans. It was a raſh and unhappy determination of the cabinet-council; and their advice to the king on this point was fatal, if not highly criminal. An addreſs now alſo was publiſhed, by the congreſs, to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory meaſures were adopted, hoſtilities ſtill continued; and an expedition was ſet on foot by the Americans againſt Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commiſſion given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada; by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the ſubjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital puniſhments againſt all thoſe whom he ſhould deem rebels and oppoſers of the laws. The American expedition againſt Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable character, and of conſiderable military ſkill, on whom the congreſs conferred the rank of brigadier-general. On the 31ſt of December, Montgomery attempted to gain poſſeſſion of Quebec by ſtorm, but was killed in the firſt fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was alſo dangerouſly wounded; about ſixty of their men were killed and wounded, and 300 taken priſoners. The beſiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the ſiege was for ſome months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving conſiderable reinforcements and ſupplies of proviſions from England, in May 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat: Montreal, Chamblée, and St. John's, were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During theſe tranſactions, the royal army at Boſton was reduced to great diſtreſs for want of proviſions; the town was bombarded by the Americans; and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of ſeven thouſand men, was obliged to quit Boſton, and embark for Halifax, leaving a conſiderable quantity of artillery and ſome ſtores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Waſhington immediately took poſſeſſion of it. On the 4th of July following, the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "free and independent ſtates;" that they were abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally diſſolved; and alſo that, as free and independent ſtates, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent ſtates may of right do." They likewiſe publiſhed articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "The United States of America."

In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore ſir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charlestown in South Carolina. But this place was ſo ably defended by the Americans, under general Lee, that the Britiſh commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ſhips having ſuſtained conſiderable loſs; and a twenty-eight gun ſhip, which ran a-ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and ſeamen. However, a much more important and ſucceſsful attack againſt the Americans was ſoon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Heſſians, and a conſiderable number of Highlanders, ſo that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother, vice-admiral lord Howe; and both the general and the admiral were inveſted with a power, under the title of "Commiſſioners for granting peace to the colonies,"

of granting pardon to thoſe who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New York ſeems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the beſt manner they were able. On Long Iſland, near New York, the Americans had alſo a large body of troops encamped, and ſeveral works thrown up. General Howe firſt landed on Staten Iſland, where he met with no oppoſition; but early in the morning of the 22d of Auguſt, a deſcent was made by the Britiſh troops upon Long Iſland, and towards noon about fifteen thouſand were landed. They had greatly they advantage of the Americans, by their ſuperior ſkill and diſcipline, and being better provided with artillery, and every kind of military accommodation; and the American paſſes were far from being properly ſecured. Some actions and ſkirmiſhes happened between them during ſeveral ſucceſſive days, in which the Britiſh troops engaged their enemies with great ardour, and the Americans ſuffered exceedingly. Finding themſelves ſo much overpowered, they at length reſolved to quit the iſland; and general Waſhington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in which he diſplayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were withdrawn from the camp, and their different works; their baggage, ſtores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed to the water-ſide, embarked, and paſſed over a long ferry to New York, with ſuch extraordinary ſilence and order, that the Britiſh army did not perceive the leaſt motion, and were ſurpriſed in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and ſeeing the laſt of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger. The provincials had been ſo ſurrounded by the Britiſh troops, and the latter had diſplayed ſuch ſuperior military ſkill, that it was a ſubject of wonder that the greateſt part of the American army ſhould be able to effectuate their retreat. In the different actions previous to this, the loſs of the Americans had been very conſiderable. Upwards of a thouſand of them were taken priſoners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior officers; their number killed and wounded was computed to be ſtill greater; they loſt alſo five field-pieces, and a quantity of ordnance was found in their different redoubts and forts on the iſland; whilſt the whole loſs of the Britiſh troops, if faithfully publiſhed, did not amount to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

New York was now ſoon abandoned, and the royal army obtained ſome other conſiderable advantages over the Americans, at the White Plains, taking Fort Waſhington, with a garriſon of 2500 men, and Fort Lee with a great quantity of ſtores; which loſſes obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerſeys to the river Delaware, a diſtance of ninety miles. Alſo on the 8th of December, general Clinton and ſir Peter Parker obtained poſſeſſion of Rhode Iſland: and the Britiſh troops covered the Jerſeys. This was the criſis of American danger. All their forts were taken, the time of the greateſt part of their army to ſerve was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a deſtitute ſtate, with a well-clothed and diſciplined army purſuing. Had general Howe puſhed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Waſhington, it has been maintained there would have been an end to the conteſt; but this delay gave time for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradeſman, and labourer, to join general Waſhington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidſt ſnow, ſtorms, and ice, with a ſmall detachment, croſſed the Delaware, and ſurpriſed a brigade of the Heſſian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of

them priſoners, with whom he repaſſed the river; having alſo taken three ſtandards, ſix pieces of braſs cannon, and near one thouſand ſtand of arms. Immediately after this ſurpriſe of the Heſſians, and depoſiting them in ſafety, Waſhington recroſſed the river to reſume his former poſts at Trenton. The Britiſh troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning; but the Americans, by a happy ſtroke of generalſhip, defeated the plan. Waſhington, to diſguiſe his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp, as an indication of their going to reſt, and to conceal what was acting behind them. He then moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and, by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reached Princetown early in the morning, carried the Britiſh poſt at that place, and ſet off with near 300 priſoners on his return to Delaware, juſt as the Britiſh troops at Trenton were under arms, and proceeding to attack him, ſuppoſing him in his former poſition.

In the month of September 1777, two actions of ſome importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Waſhington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and ſoon after, the city of Philadelphia ſurrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for ſome time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unſucceſsful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He ſet out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a conſiderable body of Indians. For ſome time he drove the Americans before him, and made himſelf maſter of Ticonderoga; but at length he encountered ſuch difficulties, and was ſo vigorouſly oppoſed by the Americans, under Gates and Arnold, that, after two ſevere actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne, and his army of 5600 men, were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

About the ſame time, ſir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a ſucceſsful expedition againſt the Americans up the North River; they made themſelves maſters of ſeveral forts; but the Americans complained, that in this expedition, and ſome others, the Britiſh troops had wantonly ſet fire to houſes and towns, particularly Eſopus, and carried on the war in a manner not uſual among civiliſed nations. Theſe devaſtations greatly increaſed the averſion of the Americans to the Britiſh government, which had already taken a deep root. General Howe ſoon after returned to England, and the command of the Britiſh army in America devolved upon general Clinton; but it was now found neceſſary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New York, in June 1778. The Britiſh troops were attacked on their march by the Americans; but the retreat was ſo ably conducted, or the American general, Lee, behaved ſo ill, that their loſs did not amount to 300, killed and wounded.

During part of this unhappy war between Great Britain and the colonies, the latter received conſiderable ſupplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court thought this a favourable opportunity for leſſening the power of Great Britain. Some French officers alſo entered into the American ſervice; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the eſſential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, ſovereignty, and independence, abſolute and unlimited,

of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June, 1778, the earl of Carliſle, William Eden, and George Johnſtone, eſqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commiſſioners from his majeſty, to ſettle the diſputes between the mother-country and the colonies. But it was now too late: the terms which, at an earlier period of the conteſt, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with diſdain; and the congreſs poſitively refuſed to enter into any treaty with the Britiſh commiſſioners, if the independency of the United Sates of America were not previouſly acknowledged, or the Britiſh fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of theſe requiſitions being compelled with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animoſity.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occaſioned hoſtilities to be commenced between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either ſide. On the 27th of June, 1778, the Licorne and La Belle Poule, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately iſſued by the French court for making repriſals on the ſhips of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July a battle was fought off Breſt, between the Engliſh fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of count d'Orvilliers. The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of 30 ſhips of the line, and the French of 32, beſides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not deciſive, no ſhip being taken on either ſide, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Breſt. Of the Engliſh 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loſs of the French is ſuppoſed to have been very great. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the Engliſh fleet, becauſe a deciſive victory had not been obtained over the French; at laſt the blame was thrown upon ſir Hugh Palliſer, vice-admiral of the blue, who was charged in a newspaper with miſconduct, and diſobedience of orders. Though no regular accuſation was brought againſt him, he required of admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from the unfavourable reports that were propagated relative to him. This the admiral declined; which gave riſe to ſome altercation between them; and ſir Hugh Palliſer afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the Board of Admiralty (of which he was himſelf a member) articles of accuſation againſt admiral Keppel, though, for many months after the action, he had continued to act under him, and profeſſed the greateſt reſpect to him. A mode of conduct ſo extraordinary was very generally and ſeverely cenſured; but the lords of the Admiralty ordered a court-martial to be held for the trial of admiral Keppel. When the court-martial was held, admiral Keppel was acquitted in the moſt honourable manner; and ſir Hugh Palliſer's charge againſt him was declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-founded." But ſir Hugh Palliſer being afterwards tried by another court-martial, partly compoſed from ſome of the captains of his own diviſion, he likewiſe was acquitted; his diſobedience to the admiral's orders was conſidered as being occaſioned by the diſabled ſtate of his ſhip; a ſlight cenſure only was paſſed on him for not making the ſtate of his ſhip known to the admiral; and his conduct in other reſpects was declared to have been meritorious.

In the Eaſt Indies alſo an engagement happened between ſome Engliſh ſhips of war, under the command of ſir Edward Vernon, and ſome French ſhips under the command of monſ. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of Auguſt, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following Pondicherry ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the courſe of the ſame year, the iſland of St. Lucia, in the Weſt Indies, was taken from the French; but the latter made themſelves maſters of Dominica, and the following year they obtained poſſeſſion of the iſlands of St. Vincent and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Eſtaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a conſiderable body of French troops, to the aſſiſtance of the Americans. The French and Americans ſoon made an united attack upon the Britiſh troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevoſt; but the latter defended themſelves ſo well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great loſs, and D'Eſtaing ſoon after totally abandoned the coaſt of America. At the cloſe of the year 1779, ſeveral French ſhips of war, and merchant ſhips, were taken in the Weſt Indies, by a fleet under the command of ſir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war againſt England. One of the firſt enterpriſes in which the Spaniards engaged was the ſiege of Gibraltar, which was defended by the garriſon with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was alſo added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets ſeemed for a time to ride almoſt triumphant in the Britiſh Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconſiderable apprehenſions of an invaſion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind; and after parading for ſome time in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports, without effecting any thing. On the 8th of January 1780, ſir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured ſeven Spaniſh ſhips and veſſels of war belonging to the royal company of Caraccas, with a number of trading veſſels under their convoy; and in a few days after, the ſame admiral engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of eleven ſhips of the line, and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largeſt Spaniſh ſhips were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on ſhore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the Engliſh. A Spaniſh 70 gun ſhip, with 600 men, was alſo blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewiſe happened in the Weſt Indies, between the Engliſh fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world (having previouſly thrown ſupplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but none of theſe actions were deciſive, nor was any ſhip taken on either ſide. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ſhips from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of Auguſt, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five Engliſh Eaſt-Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips bound for the Weſt Indies, which was one of the moſt complete naval captures ever made, and a very ſevere ſtroke to the commerce of Great Britain. Such a prize never before entered the harbour of Cadiz.

On the 4th of May, 1780, ſir Henry Clinton made himſelf maſter of Charleſtown, South Carolina; and on the 16th of Auguſt earl Cornwallis obtained a very ſignal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thouſand American priſoners were taken.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deſerted the ſervice of the congreſs, made his eſcape to New York, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal ſervice. Major André, who negotiated this deſertion, and was concerting meaſures with him for betraying the important poſt of Weſt Point into the hands of the Engliſh, was taken in the American lines, in his return to New York, and, being conſidered as a ſpy, ſuffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The great expenſes of the American war, and the burthens which were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occaſioned much diſcontent in the nation, and ſeemed to convince perſons of all ranks of the neceſſity of public economy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties of the kingdom, at the cloſe of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were preſent, who agreed to preſent petitions to the houſe of commons, ſtating the evils which the profuſe expenditure of the public money occaſioned, &c.

Some trivial attempts were made in parliament to remedy the grievances ſtated in the petitions; but nothing important was effected: the miniſtry ſoon found means to maintain their influence in parliament; a diverſity of ſentiment occaſioned ſome diſunion among the popular leaders; the ſpirit which had appeared among the people, by degrees ſubſided; and various cauſes at length conſpired to bring the greateſt part of the nation to a patient acquieſcence in the meaſures of adminiſtration.

The middle of the year 1780 was diſtinguiſhed by one of the moſt diſgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; eſpecially if it be conſidered as happening in an age in which the principles of toleration were well underſtood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately paſſed "for relieving his "majeſty's ſubjects, profeſſing the Romiſh religion, from certain penal-"ties and diſabilities impoſed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of "the reign of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of ſenſe and of liberal ſentiments, by whom the laws againſt papiſts were juſtly deemed too ſevere. The act at firſt ſeemed to give little offence to perſons of any claſs in England; but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Reſolutions were formed to oppoſe any law for granting indulgences to papiſts in Scotland; and a Romiſh chapel was burned, and the houſes of ſeveral papiſts demoliſhed in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England; a number of perſons aſſembled themſelves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of the late act in favour of the papiſts, and they aſſumed the title of the Proteſtant Aſſociation. It was then reſolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it ſhould be attended by great numbers of petitioners in perſon; and a public advertiſement was iſſued for that purpoſe, ſigned by lord George Gordon.

Fifty thouſand perſons are ſuppoſed to have aſſembled with this view on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the houſe of commons, where their petition was preſented by their preſident. In the courſe of the day ſeveral members of both houſes of parliament were groſsly inſulted and ill-treated by the populace: and a mob aſſembled the ſame evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another Romiſh chapel in Warwick-ſtreet, Golden-ſquare, were entirely demoliſhed. A party of the guards were then ſent for, to put a ſtop to the farther pro-

greſs of theſe violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, eſcorted by the military. On the Sunday following, another mob aſſembled, and deſtroyed a popiſh chapel in Rope-maker's-alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demoliſhed a ſchool-houſe, and three dwelling-houſes, in the ſame place, belonging to the Romiſh prieſts, with a valuable library of books, and a maſs-houſe, in Virginia-ſtreet, Ratcliff-highway. They alſo deſtroyed all the houſehold furniture of ſir George Saville, one of the moſt reſpectable men of the kingdom, becauſe he had brought in the bill in favour of the papiſts. On Tueſday great numbers again aſſembled about the parliament-houſe, and behaved ſo tumultuouſly, that both houſes thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a moſt daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to releaſe the rioters who were confined there; and the keeper having refuſed to deliver the keys, his houſe was ſet on fire, the priſon was ſoon in flames, and great part of it conſumed, though a new ſtone edifice of uncommon ſtrength; and more than three hundred priſoners made their eſcape, many of whom joined the mob. A committee of the Proteſtant Aſſociation now circulated hand-bills, requeſting all true proteſtants to ſhow their attachments to their beſt intereſt, by a legal and peaceable deportment: but none of them ſtept forth, notwithſtanding their boaſted numbers, to extinguiſh the flames they had occaſioned: violence, tumult, and devaſtation, ſtill continued. The Proteſtant Aſſociation, as they thought proper to ſtyle themſelves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of miſchief, and the hope of plunder. Two other priſons, the houſes of lord Mansfield, and ſir John Fielding, and ſeveral other private houſes, were deſtroyed the ſame evening. The following day, the King's Bench priſon, the New Bridewell in St. George's Fields, ſome popiſh chapels, ſeveral private houſes of the papiſts, and other buildings, were deſtroyed by the rioters; ſome were pulled down, and others ſet on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and diſorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During theſe extraordinary ſcenes, there was a ſhameful inactivity in the lord-mayor of London, and in moſt of the other magiſtrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the miniſtry appeared to be panic-ſtruck, and to be only attentive to the preſervation of their own houſes, and of the royal palace. The magiſtrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the military to fire upon the inſurgents; but at length, as all property began to be inſecure, men of all claſſes began to ſee the neceſſity of vigorous oppoſition to the rioters: large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was iſſued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magiſtrates, and to uſe force for diſperſing the illegal and tumultuous aſſemblies of the people." The troops exerted themſelves with diligence in the ſuppreſſion of theſe alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony*, and the metropolis was at length reſtored to order and tranquillity. The manner in which theſe tumults were ſuppreſſed by the operations of the military, without any authority from the civil magiſtrate, however neceſſary from the peculiar circum-

* Lord George Gordon was himſelf committed to the Tower, and tried for high treaſon,—but acquitted.

ſtances of the caſe, was thought to be a very dangerous precedent; and that an act of indemnity ought to have been paſſed, not only with regard to inferior perſons who had acted in the ſuppreſſion of theſe riots, but alſo with reſpect to the miniſtry themſelves, for the part they had taken in this tranſaction, in order to prevent its being eſtabliſhed as a precedent.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was diſturbed by theſe commotions, there appeared reaſon to apprehend an increaſe of its foreign enemies by a rupture with Holland; loud remonſtrances were made by the Britiſh miniſter to the States-general, complaining that a clandeſtine commerce was carried on between their ſubjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the caſe at St. Euſtatius; and that the enemies of Great Britain were ſupplied with naval and military ſtores by the Dutch.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour; and that republic ſoon ſuffered a very ſevere blow in the loſs of the iſland of St. Euſtatius, which was taken by the Engliſh on the 2d of February, 1781.

On the 5th of Auguſt the ſame year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an Engliſh ſquadron of ſhips of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. Both the contending ſquadrons fought with great gallantry, and by both the victory was claimed.

The war continued to be proſecuted with various ſucceſs; the French made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida, with little effectual reſiſtance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Greene, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15, 1781; but it was a hard fought battle, and the loſs on both ſides conſiderable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the conſequences of a defeat; for, three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his ſick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before he could find ſhelter, and ſo left South Carolina entirely expoſed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed ſome ravages in Virginia, deſtroyed much ſhipping, and about 8000 hogſheads of tobacco; but none of theſe events at that time promiſed any ſpeedy termination of the war; they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans and the French at Rhode Iſland to that quarter, where the next year the deciſive blow was ſtruck, which firmly eſtabliſhed American independence. Lord Cornwallis's ſituation at Wilmington was very diſagreeable, and his force reduced ſo low, that he could not think of marching to Charleſtown by land: he turned his thoughts therefore to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25, 1781. In this central province, all the ſcattered operations of active hoſtility began at length to converge into a point, and the grand cataſtrophe of the American war opened to the world. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to about 7000 excellent troops; but ſuch was their plundering and devaſtations on their route, and the order of the Americans, that his ſituation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from ſending thoſe ſuccours to him which he otherwiſe would have done, by his fears for New York, againſt which he apprehended Waſhington meditated a formidable attack. The American general played a game of great addreſs. As many of their poſts and diſpatches had been intercepted,

and the letters publiſhed with great parade and triumph in the New York papers, to expoſe the poverty, weakneſs, and diſunion of the Americans, Waſhington ſoon turned the tables on the Britiſh commanders, and derived public advantage from this ſource of vexation and prejudice. He wrote letters to the ſouthern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unleſs by a direct attack with the French troops on New York. He aſſerted it was abſolutely determined on, and would ſoon be executed. Theſe letters were intercepted (as was intended they ſhould be), with others of the like kind from the French officers; and the project was ſucceſsful. Sir Henry Clinton was thus amuſed and deceived, and kept from forming any ſuſpicion of the real deſign of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres, Waſhington kept New York and its dependencies in a continual ſtate of alarm for about ſix weeks, and then ſuddenly marched acroſs the Jerſeys, and through Pennſylvania, to the head of Elk, at the bottom of the Cheſapeak, from which the light troops were conveyed by ſhipping down the bay; and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were alſo there embarked, and ſoon joined the other body under marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton, receiving information that the count de Graſſe was expected every moment in the Cheſapeak, with a large French fleet to co-operate with Waſhington, now ſeriouſly attempted to re-inforce lord Cornwallis, but without ſucceſs; for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the Britiſh fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under De Graſſe, Graves returned to New York to refit, and left the French maſters of the navigation of the Cheſapeak. Preſently the moſt effectual meaſures were adopted by general Waſhington for ſurrounding lord Cornwallis's army; and on the laſt of September it was cloſely inveſted in York Town, and at Glouceſter on the oppoſite ſide of the river, with a conſiderable body of troops on one ſide, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 5th and 7th of October, with a large train of artillery. The works which had been raiſed by the Britiſh ſunk under the weight of the enemies' batteries; the troops were much diminiſhed by the ſword and ſickneſs, and worn down by conſtant watching and fatigue; and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis ſurrendered himſelf, and his whole army, by capitulation to general Waſhington as priſoners of war*. Fifteen hundred ſeamen underwent the fate of the garriſon; but theſe, with the Guadaloupe frigate of 24 guns, and a number of tranſports, were aſſigned to M. de Graſſe, as a return for the French naval aſſiſtance.

Such was the iſſue of the Virginian war. The capture of this army, under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be ſoon or eaſily recovered; it threw a gloom over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of thoſe who had flattered themſelves with the ſubjugation of the colonies by arms. The ſurrender of this ſecond Britiſh army may be conſidered as the cloſing ſcene of the continental war in America; for the immenſe expenſe of carrying it on, ſo diſtant from the ſeat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effuſion of human blood it had occaſioned; the diminution of trade, and the vaſt increaſe of taxes—theſe were evils of ſuch a magnitude, ariſing from this ever to

* The American return made the number of priſoners 7247, land and marine.

be lamented conteſt, as could ſcarcely be overlooked, even by the moſt inſenſible and ſtupid. Accordingly, on the firſt of March 1782, after repeated ſtruggles in the houſe of commons, the houſe addreſſed the king, requeſting him to put a ſtop to any farther proſecution of the war againſt the American colonies. This was a moſt important event: it rendered a change of meaſures and of councils abſolutely neceſſary, and diffuſed univerſal joy throughout the kingdom. Thoſe country gentlemen who had generally voted with the miniſtry ſaw the dangers to which the nation was expoſed in an expenſive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a ſingle ally; and feeling the preſſure of the public burthens, they at length deſerted the ſtandard of adminiſtration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27th, 1782, under the auſpices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury.

The firſt buſineſs of the new miniſtry was the taking meaſures for effectuating a general peace. Mr. Grenville was inveſted with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was alſo directed to propoſe the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the firſt inſtance, inſtead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America where alſo directed to acquaint the congreſs with the pacific views of the Britiſh court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

Peace every day became more deſirable to the nation. A ſeries of loſſes agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the iſland of Minorca ſurrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the ſame month, the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's was given up to the French. The valuable iſland of Jamaica would ſoon probably have ſhared the ſame fate, had not the Britiſh fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French under the count de Graſſe, in their way to join the Spaniſh fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to ſupport the centre, and a ſignal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral, in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a preſent from the city of Paris to the French king), was taken, with two ſeventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ſhip blew up by accident ſoon after ſhe was in our poſſeſſion, and another 74 ſunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the ſame fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the deſign againſt Jamaica was fruſtrated. The new miniſtry had ſuperſeded admiral Rodney, and intended to have proſecuted the inquiry into his tranſactions at St. Euſtatius; but this victory ſilenced all complaints, and procured him the dignity of an Engliſh peer.

May 18th, the Bahama iſlands ſurrendered to the Spaniards; but the credit of the Britiſh arms was well ſuſtained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot, the gevernor; and the formidable attack, on the 13th of September, with floating batteries of 212 braſs cannon, &c. in ſhips from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in diſappointment, and the deſtruction of all the ſhips and moſt of the aſſailants in them. The garriſon was relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve ſail of the line inferior. The military operations after this were few, and of little conſequence. Negapatnam, a ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, and Trincomalé on the iſland of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Britiſh forces; but the French, ſoon receiving conſiderable ſuccours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomalé, forced the Britiſh fleet in ſeveral actions,

but none decisive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withstand, with various success, all the efforts of sir Eyre Coote, and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham, on the 1st of July, occasioned a violent commotion in the cabinet, and lessened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new administration. Lord Shelburne succeeded the marquis as first lord of the treasury, and, it is said, without the knowledge of his colleagues.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France*, Great Britain ceded to France all her possessions before the war, the island of Tobago in the West Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa. with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few districts in the East Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry and Karical; it agreed also to restore the islands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the island of Gorée; with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the comptoire of Surat, in the East Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent disputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fishery, it was agreed, that the French line for fishing should begin from Cape St. John on the eastern side, and, going round by the north, should have for its boundary Cape Ray on the western side; and Great Britain renounced every claim by former treaties with respect to the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to restore to Great Britain the islands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montserrat; and guaranteed Fort James, and the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade should remain in the same condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each state in the East Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification; but if they were averse to peace, no assistance on either side was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power East Florida, and also ceded West Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all causes of complaint and misunderstanding for the future, it was agreed that British subjects should have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the district lying between the river Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the course of the said rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to restore the islands of Providence and the Bahamas to Great Britain; but they had been retaken before the peace was signed.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledged New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, sovereign, and independent states*; and for himself, his heirs and successors, relinquished all claims to the government, property, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof. To prevent all disputes in future on the subject of boundaries between these states and the remaining provinces of Great Britain, lines were very minutely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper place, and some favourable clauses were obtained for the loyalists. The navigation of the Mississippi to remain open to both parties, as also the Newfoundland fisheries.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties arose: but at length it was stipulated, that Great Britain should restore Trincomalé in the island of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it; and that the Dutch

* Preliminary articles settled January 20, 1783.

ſhould yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies, in the Eaſt Indies, with liberty to treat for its reſtitution on the point of an equivalent.

Thus a period was put to a moſt calamitous war, in which Great Britain loſt the beſt part of her American colonies, and many thouſand valuable lives, and expended or ſquandered nearly 150 millions of money. The terms of peace were, to many, a ſubject of great regret; but, had the war continued, it would have been neceſſary to have borrowed annually 17 millions and a half, by which a million *per annum* would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions, at leaſt, to the capital of the public debt, according to the uſual mode of funding. The addreſs of thanks for the peace was carried in the houſe of lords by a majority of 72 to 59, but loſt in the houſe of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons thus enliſting under the banners of the *famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly indicated a miniſterial revolution to be near at hand, unleſs the cabinet would call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen juſt mentioned were made ſecretaries of ſtate, and the duke of Portland firſt lord of the treaſury, on April the 2d, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preſerving the nation, which lord Shelburne propoſed, ſeemed now to be laid aſide. Every thing went on juſt as the coalition adminiſtration pleaſed, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the Eaſt-India Company, and their commercial affairs and territories,—a plan of which bill, its progreſs and fate, we have already given in our account of that trading company. This bill being rejected in the houſe of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occaſioned a great ferment in the cabinet, and in both houſes of parliament.

A royal meſſage was ſent between twelve and one of the morning of the 19th of December, to deſire the two ſecretaries to ſend the ſeals of their office immediately; and Mr. Pitt ſucceeded the duke of Portland as firſt lord of the treaſury, bringing in his friends into the reſpective departments, which formed the tenth adminiſtration ſince his majeſty's acceſſion.

Some leading independent gentlemen (as they ſtyled themſelves) interpoſed to unite the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with diſtraction; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united adminiſtration, proved unſucceſsful.

At laſt, after ſtrong and repeated conteſts between the two parties, on the 25th of March, 1784, a proclamation was iſſued for diſſolving the parliament, and calling a new one, agreeable to the deſires and addreſſes of a great part of the kingdom. Juſt at that critical period, the great ſeal was ſtolen from the houſe of the lord chancellor, which occaſioned many ſuſpicions, as if done by more than ordinary felons; but nothing farther appeared, and a new ſeal was preſently made. On the 18th of May the new parliament aſſembled, and the commons choſe Mr. Cornwall, the ſpeaker of the late houſe, for their ſpeaker. The next day, his majeſty addreſſed them from the throne. A very feeble oppoſition was made to the addreſs of thanks in the houſe of lords, and it ſoon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned out greatly in Mr. Pitt's favour; for on May 24th, on a diviſion of the houſe for an

addreſs to the king's ſpeech, the numbers for it, without any alteration or amendment, were 282 againſt 114.

Mr. Pitt brought in his famous Eaſt-India bill the 5th of July, the leading particulars of which we have given in our account of that company, with a few obſervations upon it.

The buſineſs of parliamentary reform having been taken up by Mr. Pitt, he accordingly introduced a ſpecific plan for that purpoſe on the 18th of April, 1785. The plan was to give one hundred members to the popular intereſt of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thouſand perſons, who, by the exiſting proviſions of law, were excluded from it. This acceſſion to the popular intereſt was to be principally obtained by the ſuppreſſion of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their repreſentatives to the counties; ſo that the number of the houſe of commons would remain the ſame.—After a debate of conſiderable length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

Among the various meaſures agitated by parliament in 1786, the plan for eſtabliſhing a ſinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their moſt immediate attention. This million is produced by the yearly income of the ſtate exceeding the permanent level of its expenditure, by the ſum of 900,000l. which may be increaſed to a million by means in no wiſe burthenſome to the people. This meaſure, which had the concurrence of every man who deſired the emancipation of the ſtate from the accumulated load of debt and taxes, was carried into a law, which created commiſſioners for carrying the purpoſes of this valuable act into execution.

We come now to a very important tranſaction of the preſent times, the impeachment of Mr. Warren Haſtings, late governor-general of Bengal. On the 17th of February, 1786, Mr. Burke, who took the lead in this tedious and expenſive buſineſs, explained the mode of proceeding he was deſirous to adopt; and, in the courſe of the ſeſſion, moved for a multitude of papers to ground and ſubſtantiate his charges upon. Theſe were produced, and Mr. Haſtings heard at the bar of the houſe of commons in his defence. The debates which aroſe on the ſubject terminated in reſolutions, that certain of the charges contained matter of impeachment againſt the late governor-general of Bengal. Mr. Haſtings was therefore impeached by the commons at the bar of the houſe of peers. His trial occupied a conſiderable portion of eight ſeſſions of parliament; and, on the 25th of April, 1795, the lord chancellor pronounced the deciſion of the peers in the following words:—"Mr. Haſtings, the houſe of lords, after a very minute inveſtigation, have acquitted you of all the charges of high crimes and miſdemeanours preferred againſt you by the commons, and every article thereof; and you and your bail are diſcharged, upon paying your fees."

Thus ended a trial, which, for length of time, exceeded any in the hiſtory of the world, having laſted ſeven years and three months.

The conſolidation of the cuſtoms and exciſe was the moſt important circumſtance deſerving of attention in the year 1787. This was a meaſure of incredible labour and detail, as well as of infinite advantage to commerce, by facilitating and ſimplifying the intricacies attendant on mercantile tranſactions, and the payment of duties; a regulation which was duly and permanently effected.

The trade carried on by this country, and other European nations, upon the coaſt of Africa, for the purpoſe of purchaſing negro ſlaves, to be employed in the cultivation of the Weſt-India iſlands and certain

parts of the continent of America, does not appear, till of late years, to have been conſidered with that general attention which ſuch a practice might have been expected to excite; a practice ſo abhorrent in its nature to the mild principles of modern policy and manners. The firſt public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a ſtop to this traffic, was by the Quakers of the ſouthern provinces of America. In Great Britain the ſame ſociety appears alſo to have taken the lead, and, after the example of their American brethren, preſented a ſimilar petition to the parliament of this kingdom.

The cauſe ſoon after became extremely popular. A great number of pamphlets were publiſhed upon this ſubject: ſeveral eminent divines recommended it from the pulpit, and in printed diſcourſes; and petitions were preſented to the legiſlature from the two univerſities, and from ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable towns and corporations in the kingdom.

His majeſty's miniſters thought it proper to inſtitute an inquiry, before a committee of the privy-council, into the facts and allegations contained in the repreſentations of both parties. The firſt public notice that was taken of the ſubject was an information communicated by Mr. Wilberforce, ſoon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention to bring forward a meaſure reſpecting the ſlave-trade. That gentleman being much indiſpoſed, Mr. Pitt came forward on the 9th of May, 1788, in the name of his friend, and moved the following reſolution: "That this houſe will, early in the next ſeſſion of parliament, proceed to take into conſideration the circumſtances of the ſlave-trade, complained of in the petitions preſented to the houſe, and what may be fit to be done thereupon;" which was unanimouſly carried. After this, on the 21ſt of May, ſir William Dolben moved the houſe for leave to bring a bill to regulate the tranſportations of the natives of Africa to the Britiſh colonies in the Weſt-Indies *.

By the bill now propoſed, the number of ſlaves to be tranſported in any ſhip was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary relief, till ſome more permanent expedient could be deviſed by the legiſlature. Having paſſed through the commons, it was carried up to the lords, where it alſo paſſed, after having received ſeveral amendments; ſome of which being thought to interfere with the privileges of the lower houſe, a new bill was brought in, which paſſed both houſes, and received the royal aſſent.

The year 1788 being the hundredth anniverſary of the glorious revolution in 1688, the fourth of November being the birth-day of king

* That there was a neceſſity for adopting this propoſition, will moſt clearly appear from the facts which were proved in the courſe of the debate. It appeared that five feet ſix inches in length, and ſixteen inches in breadth, was the ſhare of room allowed on an average to each ſlave. The lower deck of the veſſels was entirely covered with bodies, and the ſpace between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which ſeldom amounted to five feet eight inches, was divided by a platform alſo covered with bodies. Five perſons in every hundred periſhed, at the loweſt computation, in a voyage of ſix weeks' continuance; which, according to the moſt accurate eſtimates of human life, was ſeventeen times the uſual rate of mortality. It was indeed much more, becauſe, in the eſtimate of mortality, perſons of every age were included, while in an African voyage the aged were entirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such was the ruinous nature of the trade in the moſt favourable circumſtances; but, in the voyage to the more diſtant parts of Africa, the mortality was ſtated to be twice as great; and, conſequently, thirty-four perſons periſhed at the loweſt eſtimation, for one that would have died in the ordinary courſe of nature.

William, the inſtrument, under Providence, who completed that event, and the fifth of this month being the anniverſary of his landing, were obſerved by many ſocieties in London, and other parts of the kingdom, not only with feſtivity, but with devotion and thankſgiving.

In the ſpace of only four years, which had elapſed ſince the complete triumph of the ſovereign and the nation over the "Coalition," Great Britain, under the conduct of a miniſter, who had not yet attained his thirtieth year, had riſen from a ſtate of unexampled depreſſion, to her ancient ſuperiority among the European kingdoms.

In this ſtate of public felicity, the nation was ſuddenly alarmed in the autumn of 1788, by the reports of his majeſty being attacked with an unexpected and dangerous illneſs. The preciſe nature of it was for ſeveral days unaſcertained and unexplained, even to thoſe whoſe reſidence near the court ſhould have enabled them to obtain early and authentic information. Meanwhile, Fame augmented the evil; and the death of the ſovereign was believed to have either already taken place, or to be imminent and inevitable.

Time, however, gradually divulged the truth, and changed the apprehenſions of the nation for the ſituation of the king. His diſorder was underſtood to have fallen upon the brain, and to have produced, as might be expected, a temporary privation of reaſon. A ſpecies of interregnum in fact took place; though unaccompanied by any of thoſe circumſtances which uſually characteriſe and accompany that unfortunate ſtate. The kingdom, anxious, and with eyes directed towards their ſovereign, betrayed no ſymptoms of confuſion, anarchy, or civil commotion. The firſt miniſter continued to exerciſe, by a general ſubmiſſion and conſent, the powers delegated to him before the king's indiſpoſition; and the political machine, well conſtructed, and properly organiſed, ſuſtained no derangement or injury whatſoever from this ſhock, except thoſe inſeparably connected with delay in the tranſactions or negotiations pending with foreign courts.

The two houſes of parliament, in conſequence of the preceding prorogation, met in a few days ſubſequent to theſe extraordinary events. The general agitation and curioſity, even if they had not been aided by other emotions of hope and fear, of ambition, and of public duty, would alone have produced a numerous attendance. Mr. Pitt opened the ſubject of their meeting in a very conciſe and pathetic manner; lamented the occaſion, expreſſed his hope that the cauſe would ſpeedily be removed, and, in purſuance of that idea, adviſed an immediate adjournment of a fortnight. As ſoon as the adjournment was at an end, Mr. Fox laid claim to the vacant ſceptre in the name and on the behalf of the heir apparent, as belonging and devolving to him of right.

Mr. Pitt demanded the diſcuſſion and deciſion of ſo great and leading a principle, which led to concluſions unlimited and undefined, as well as ſubverſive of the tenure on which a king of England had originally received his crown; and parliament, rouſed to a ſenſe of the neceſſity of declaring itſelf ſolely competent to fill the vacant throne, proceeded to that great act without circumlocution or delay; and having pronounced upon this important preliminary, then decided that the prince of Wales ſhould be invited and requeſted to accept the regency under certain limitations.

The month of December elapſed in theſe conteſts, and the year 1789 commenced under the moſt gloomy preſages. Mutual aſperity and reproach embittered every debate. No appearances of convaleſcence or

recovery, ſo ardently anticipated by the nation, had yet manifeſted themſelves in the malady of the king.

A ſecond examination of the phyſicians who had attended his majeſty during the courſe of his diſorder, which took place before a committee of the houſe of commons, and which was certainly not conducted on the part of oppoſition with either delicacy or judgment, tended to throw very little light on the great object of public inquiry—the probable duration of this afflicting malady.

A very ſhort period, probably not exceeding three days, muſt have completed the bill, which was to declare the incapacity of the ſovereign to conduct the national affairs, and to transfer the ſceptre, though with diminiſhed influence, to his ſon. The members of adminiſtration were on the point of reſigning their charges, and the new miniſtry, already ſettled, prepared to enter on office: while the Engliſh people, fondly attached by every ſenſe of loyalty and affection to their monarch, as well as from gratitude and eſteem to the firſt miniſter, in dejection and ſilence looked on, and ſaw the government transferred to others, who, whatever abilities they might collectively poſſeſs, certainly did not enjoy the general approbation and confidence.

But the term of interregnum and misfortune was now arrived; and the impending calamity, which had menaced England with the evils of a regency, was ſuddenly and unexpectedly diſſipated. The diſorder, under which the king had ſuffered during three months, and whoſe violence had hitherto appeared to baffle all medical ſkill and exertion, gradually, but rapidly, ſubſided. Sanity of mind and reaſon reſumed their ſeat, and left no trace of their temporary ſubverſion. Time confirmed the cure, and reſtored to his ſubjects a prince, rendered ſupremely and peculiarly dear to them by the recent proſpect and apprehenſion of his loſs. The viſion of regency faded and diſappeared, as the ſovereign came forward to public view, and was totally extinguiſhed by his reſumption of all the regal functions. The demonſtrations of national joy far exceeded any recorded in the Engliſh annals, and were probably more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on ſimilar occaſions. No efforts of deſpotiſm, or mandates of arbitrary power, could have produced the illuminations which not only the capital, but almoſt every town and village throughout the kingdom, exhibited in teſtimony of its loyalty; and theſe proofs of attachment were renewed, and even augmented, on the occaſion of his majeſty's firſt appearance in public, and his ſolemn proceſſion to St. Paul's (on the 23d of April, 1789) to return thanks to heaven for his recovery.

Whilſt the ancient government of France was entirely overthrown, and a revolution the moſt unexpected was effected, it is difficult to imagine a picture of more complete ſerenity than England preſented. At peace with all the world, in the boſom of repoſe, ſhe ſaw her commerce and manufactures extend, her credit augment, and her name excite reſpect among the moſt diſtant nations; while many of the great ſurrounding European kingdoms were either involved in foreign war, or deſolated by domeſtic troubles. In this happy ſituation, a ſtorm unexpectedly and ſuddenly aroſe from a quarter, where it would ſeem that no foreſight or precautions could have anticipated the danger. Among the new and unexplored paths of commerce, which the ſpirit of a diſcerning and adventurous people had attempted to open ſince the peace of 1783, were particularly two, which appeared to promiſe the moſt beneficial returns. The firſt was a whale fiſhery, ſimilar to that which had been carried on for ages near the coaſt of Greenland; but transferred

to the ſouthern hemiſphere, near the extremity of Patagonia, and in the ſtormy ſeas which ſurrounded Cape Horn, as well as in the Pacific Ocean. In the courſe of a few years, this branch of trade had augmented rapidly, and was found on trial to afford very important advantages; nor had it received any impediments from the vague pretenſions of the Spaniſh crown to the ſovereignty of the ſhores waſhed by that ocean which was the ſcene of their exertions.

The ſecond of theſe enterpriſes, original in its own nature, able in its conception, bold in its execution, and having no precedent for its guidance, was directed to countries and to objects almoſt as much unknown to geographical as to commercial knowledge or experience.

The north-weſt coaſt of America, the part of the earth to which this embarkation was deſtined, extending northward from California and New Albion to the Frozen Sea, had been partly explored, and faintly traced, by captain Cook; but much remained for future enterpriſe and induſtry to accompliſh, before this diſcovery could be converted to any purpoſe of public utility. He had, however, aſcertained the exiſtence of the continent; and he had received from the barbarous natives, with whom he eſtabliſhed a ſpecies of barter, ſome valuable ſpecimens of furs, in exchange for European commodities of a far inferior nature.

The hope of procuring a conſiderable quantity of thoſe rare and coſtly ſkins, for the ſale of which a very advantageous market preſented itſelf at Canton in China, was the leading inducement to the adventurers who engaged in the expedition.

Animated by theſe views, and having received the moſt affirmative marks of the protection of government previous to their departure, five ſhips were fitted out from London in 1785, and the two ſucceeding years. Four of theſe veſſels, after doubling Cape Horn, arrived ſafely on the north-weſt coaſt of America. The ſanguine expectations which had been entertained of effecting a lucrative exchange of commodities with the natives were fully and ſpeedily realiſed. Cargoes of the fineſt furs were procured, and ſold to the Chineſe, even under great commercial diſcouragements and pecuniary impoſitions, at ſo high a price as amply to re-imburſe and enrich the adventurers. Other attempts of a ſimilar nature were made from Bengal; and two veſſels were ſucceſſively diſpatched from the Ganges to the ſame coaſt in the year 1786. A factory was eſtabliſhed at Nootka Sound, a port ſituated in the fiftieth degree of northern latitude, on the ſhore of America. Poſſeſſion of it was ſolemnly taken in the name of the ſovereign and crown of England; amicable treaties were concluded with the chiefs of the neighbouring diſtricts; and a tract of land was purchaſed from one of them, on which the new proprietors proceeded to form a ſettlement, and to conſtruct ſtorehouſes. Every thing bore the appearance of a riſing colony, and each year opened new ſources of commerce and advantage.

That, upon every principle of the law of nations, upon the eſtabliſhed uſage in all ſimilar caſes, and as being the firſt ſettlers, the Britiſh adventurers had an undoubted title to the place in queſtion, is beyond diſpute. Notwithſtanding this, in the month of May 1789, a Spaniſh ſhip of war from St. Blas in Mexico, called the Princeſſa, commanded by M. Martinez, and mounting 20 guns, anchored there. The various avocations of trade having led the greater part of the perſons employed of this ſettlement to different parts of the coaſt, the only Engliſh trading ſhip remaining in the Sound was the Iphigenia. The Princeſſa was ſoon joined by a Spaniſh ſnow of 16 guns; and for ſome time, mutual

civilities paſſed between the Spaniards and Engliſh. Theſe, however, were at length interrupted by an order being ſent to capt. Douglas (the commander of the Iphigenia) to come on board of the Princeſſa; when he was informed by M. Martinez, that he had the king of Spain's orders to ſeize all veſſels which he might find upon that coaſt, and that he (capt. Douglas) was his priſoner. In conſequence of this, M. Martinez took poſſeſſion of the Iphigenia in the name of his catholic majeſty, and conveyed the priſoners on board the Spaniſh ſhip, where they were ironed. M. Martinez alſo took poſſeſſion of the ſettlement, hoiſted the Spaniſh flag, and proceeded to erect various buildings, on which he employed, together with his own men, ſome of the crew of the Iphigenia. He afterwards permitted captain Douglas to reſume the command of his ſhip; and on repreſenting that he had been ſtripped of his merchandiſe and other ſtores, M. Martinez gave him a ſmall ſupply of ſtores and proviſion (for which he took bills on the owners), by means of which, about a fortnight after he was firſt detained, he was enabled to proceed to China.

Shortly afterwards, the Engliſh veſſels, the North-Weſt-America, the Argonaut, and the Princeſs-Royal, arriving ſeparately at Nootka from their trading voyages, were captured by M. Martinez, their crews were made priſoners, and their cargoes ſeized. After ſome detentions, the crew of the North-Weſt-America were ſent to China, the two other veſſels with their crews were ſent to Blas in Mexico, and ſome Chineſe, who had been brought to the ſettlement by our people, were detained and employed as labourers.

Of the North-Weſt-America, ſent to China, no authentic account has been received; but on the arrival of the two veſſels at St. Blas, a repreſentation of their caſe having been made to the Spaniſh governor, the ſhips were reſtored (on the officers giving ſecurity to indemnify the governor, ſhould it be proved they were lawful prizes), the crews were furniſhed with proviſions, ſtores, and money, to enable them to reſume their voyage.

Of theſe tranſactions only a partial, vague, and uncircumſtantial account was known by his majeſty's miniſters till the 30th of April, 1790, when captain Mears preſented his memorial to Mr. Grenville. This paper indeed conveyed an intelligence of a very different nature from that which had been previouſly received. Within one week after the affair was communicated, the moſt active and formidable preparations were made, a poſitive demand of preliminary ſatisfaction and reſtitution was ſent to Madrid, and the people of England were called upon to adopt the national vindication. The firſt communication of this buſineſs to the public was by his majeſty's meſſage to parliament on the 5th of May.

An attention to the honour of their country made it therefore neceſſary for our miniſters to call upon the court of Spain itſelf to give direct ſatisfaction for an injury committed by an officer acting under its immediate commiſſion, and grounded on its pretenſions of an excluſive right to the whole continent of America. To this it was neceſſary for his catholic majeſty to acknowledge that ſuch an injury had been committed; and this was moſt expreſsly declared and ſigned by count de Florida Blanca, in the name and by the order of his catholic majeſty, at Madrid, the 24th July, 1790. The acknowledgment of the injury was an expreſſion which implied a conceſſion that the court of Spain had no right to uſe force in preventing Britiſh ſubjects from viſiting the coaſts in queſtion for the purpoſes of trade and ſettlement.

The public were waiting with painful anxiety for the determination of the objects of the depending negotiation; deprecating indeed the dreadful alternative of appealing to the ſword for the vindication of our rights; yet ſatisfied of the juſtice of our cauſe, and confidently looking forward to an honourable and happy termination of a conteſt originating in the violent proceedings and unfounded claims of the court of Spain, when the agreeable news arrived that a convention was agreed upon between his Britannic majeſty and the king of Spain, and ſigned at the Eſcurial the 28th of October, 1790, by their plenipotentiaries, Alleyne Fitz-Herbert, eſq. on the part of his Britannic majeſty, and by count de Florida Blanca on that of his catholic majeſty; which was finally ratified by the court of Spain, and exchanged with Mr. Fitz-Herbert againſt his majeſty's ratification on the 22d of November, 1790, at the palace of the Eſcurial, by his catholic-majeſty's miniſter.

To defray the expenſe attending the naval and military armaments, Mr. Pitt propoſed to raiſe not merely the intereſt of the debt recently incurred, but to extinguiſh the principal itſelf, in the ſpace of four years,—though amounting to about three millions ſterling.

But though Great Britain was thus happily reſcued from war in this quarter of the globe, accident or ambition involved our Indian poſſeſſions in conteſt and in blood. At ſo remote a diſtance, it is difficult to judge accurately of cauſes and effects; but, as nearly as a diligent inquiry has enabled us to collect the truth, we ſhall give it in our hiſtorical narrative of that country, under which it will more naturally fall.

The cauſe of toleration received, in the year 1791, an acceſſion which muſt be peculiarly grateful to the friends of freedom. It is remarkable, that, notwithſtanding the radical freedom of our conſtitution, no nation in Europe has been more jealous of their religious eſtabliſhment; and ſcarcely have the Roman-catholic ſtates themſelves loaded with a more oppreſſive weight of civil penalties thoſe who diſſented in religious opinion. It has for almoſt half a century been the taſk of the legiſlature to root out, gradually and cautiouſly, from the code of our laws, thoſe diſgraceful ſtatutes. They are not yet entirely removed: but in proportion as the peaceful influence of philoſophy ſhall extend over the minds of men, we have little doubt but all parties will ſee the abſurdity of ſacrificing the cardinal virtue Charity at the ſhrine of vain ſpeculation; and, as the fears and jealouſies of mankind ſhall ſubſide, in the courſe of a few years, every trace of perſecution will fade away. As the Romiſh church was the grand object of terror in the firſt ages of reformation, it was ſcarcely matter of ſurpriſe that our ſtatute-book ſhould be loaded with the moſt rigorous and ſanguinary edicts directed againſt the profeſſors of that obnoxious faith; and though in the year 1780 ſome of theſe were removed, yet in the year 1791, in a well-known book, Burn's Eccleſiaſtical Law, not leſs than ſeventy pages were to be found entirely occupied with the bare enumeration of the penal ſtatutes in force againſt the Roman catholics. Among theſe were ſome of the moſt ſanguinary nature—It was high-treaſon and death to make a convert to the Roman-catholic faith—Severe penalties were enacted on papiſts for hearing maſs, by ſome ſtatutes; and by others they were compelled to attend the eſtabliſhed worſhip, however contrary to their conſciences. That ſuch laws ſhould have been framed in times of difficulty and danger, in times when the church of Rome flouriſhed in all the vigour of temporal power, and urged her authority by all the rigours of perſecution and all the artifices of bigotry, is not ſurpriſing; it is

only ſurpriſing that they ſhould have been ſuffered to remain in force for centuries of peace and tranquillity, when the power of the pope is annihilated even in countries profeſſing his religion, and when all the obnoxious principles of that religion are diſavowed by its profeſſors. A reform in the penal ſtatutes became the more neceſſary, ſince, in the courſe of the year 1790, a large body of catholic diſſenters had formally proteſted againſt the temporal power of the pope, againſt his aſſumed authority of releaſing men from their civil obligations, or diſpenſing with the ſacredneſs of oaths.

It was upon theſe principles, and ſupported by theſe arguments, that Mr. Mitford moved, on the 21ſt of February, 1791, for a committee of the whole houſe to enable him "to bring in a bill to relieve, upon conditions and under reſtrictions, perſons called proteſting-catholic diſſenters, from certain penalties and diſabilities, to which papiſts, or perſons profeſſing the popiſh religion, are by law ſubject." This bill, Mr. Mitford added, would be ſimilar to that which had paſſed in Ireland ſome years ſince; and as no ill conſequence had reſulted in a country where the Roman catholics were ſo much more numerous than in this, he ſhould hope the houſe would ſee no impropriety in the propoſition. The houſe entered upon the ſubject with a liberality which does them infinite honour; and the bill proceeded through its ſeveral ſtages without oppoſition.

The rights of juries had long been in an indefinite and indeterminate ſtate, particularly in the caſe of libels; and diſputes, diſgraceful in themſelves, and injurious to the adminiſtration of juſtice, had frequently ariſen between the court and the jury, between the judges and the counſel; even among the profeſſors of the law a difference of opinion had long exiſted. While the herd of mere technical practitioners earneſtly ſupported the indefeaſible authority of the bench, that oracle of conſtitutional juriſprudence, lord Camden, Mr. Erſkine, and many others of the greateſt eminence, held the rights of an Engliſh jury as too ſacred to ſuffer the great conſtitutional principle on which that inſtitution was founded to be undermined by the fallacious doctrine of precedents.

On the 25th of May, in this year, Mr. Fox preſented his bill for removing doubts with reſpect to the rights of juries in criminal caſes. The bill ſets forth that juries, in caſes of libels, ſhould have a power of judging the whole matter, and of finding a general verdict of guilty or not guilty. With a ſlight oppoſition from the legal profeſſion, it completed its progreſs through the houſe of commons. In the houſe of lords, where the influence of the law is more predominant, it experienced a very different reception, and was ſtrongly oppoſed. However, in the following year, this great conſtitutional point was at laſt decided by the lords and commons, that JURIES ARE JUDGES OF BOTH THE LAW AND THE FACT.

Early in the ſeſſions of 1791, Mr. Wilberforce made a motion, in a committee of the houſe of commons appointed for receiving and examining evidence on the ſlave-trade, "that the chairman be inſtructed to move for leave to bring in a bill to prevent the further importation of African negroes into the Britiſh colonies." Although this queſtion was ſupported with great ability and eloquence by Mr. Francis, Mr. W. Smith, the chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr Fox, yet it was negatived by a majority of 75. One immediate conſequence of this was the eſtabliſhment of a company for the expreſs purpoſe of cultivating

Weſt-Indian, and other tropical productions at Sierra Leone, on the coaſt of Africa, the bill for chartering which was introduced on the 28th of March, by Mr. Thornton.

In purſuance of a meſſage from his majeſty, a bill was brought into parliament for ſettling the conſtitution of Canada, a matter of great importance, and long in agitation. The province is to be divided into two governments, called Upper and Lower Canada; and it is hoped that this diviſion will put an end to the debates between the old French inhabitants and the Britiſh ſettlers, as each will have a majority in their own department. Each government has a council and a houſe of aſſembly; the members of the council being ſuch for life, and reſerving power to the Britiſh ſovereign of annexing to certain honours an hereditary right of ſitting in the council; the taxes to be levied and diſpoſed of by the legiſlature of each diviſion.

On the 28th of March, 1791, a meſſage was delivered from his majeſty, importing that the endeavours which he had uſed, in conjunction with his allies, to effect a pacification between Ruſſia and the Porte, not having proved ſucceſsful, his majeſty judged it requiſite, in order to add weight to his repreſentations, to make ſome further augmentation of his naval force. In conſequence of a majority in ſupport of this meaſure, a very large naval armament was prepared. Our fleet, collected to ſupport the cauſe of the Turks againſt Ruſſia, amounted, in April, to thirty-three ſhips of the line; and after maintaining this large equipment for four mouths at an enormous expenſe, it was at laſt diſmiſſed. The propoſed Ruſſian war was certainly moſt unpopular; and the reception which the propoſition of it met with in the houſe of commons ought perhaps to have induced the immediate dereliction of a meaſure, which, however meritorious its intentions might be, was not crowned by the public favour. No valuable purpoſe was attained by this armament. Ruſſia has yielded little or nothing more than her firſt propoſal; and we have not ſo effectually aſſiſted the Turks, as to have any claim to their gratitude. The miniſter's popularity was conſiderably injured by theſe expenſive and injudicious preparations, in which Europe was aſtoniſhed to behold, for the firſt time, Britain acting in a ſubſervient capacity to the narrow and intereſted politics of Pruſſia.

Soon after the riſing of the parliament, the nation was diſgraced by a ſeries of outrages and violences, as unprovoked and wanton as have ever darkened the annals of a civiliſed people, and which, for the ſpace of four days, ſpread terror and alarm through the large opulent town of Birmingham, and the adjacent country.

Concerning the French revolution, much difference of ſentiment prevailed in this country; and much heat and ill-temper the diſcuſſion of that ſubject appeared unneceſſarily to provoke. A conſiderable body of the Whig party in Great Britain rejoiced in the emancipation of a neighbouring nation, and flattered themſelves that they ſaw, in the eſtabliſhment of the firſt French conſtitution, not only the annihilation of deſpotiſm in that country, but the commencement of a new ſyſtem of politics in Europe, the baſis of which was peace, happineſs, and mutual concord.

In moſt of the larger towns in Great Britain, aſſociations were formed for the celebration of that event, by anniverſary dinners on the 14th of July; but the oppoſite party were not indifferent ſpectators of theſe proceedings. The populace were inflamed by the moſt injurious inſinuations conveyed in newspapers and pamphlets; the friends of the French

revolution were (certainly falsely as to the majority) stigmatised as determined republicans; and the act of joining in a convivial meeting on the odious 14th of July was represented as an attempt to overturn the British constitution in church and state.

Notwithstanding the pains which had been taken to depreciate these associations, the meeting in London consisted of not less than 1500 respectable gentlemen, many of them literary characters of high reputation.—As, however, rumours had been spread to the disadvantage of the meeting, and the populace appeared to collect in a tumultuous manner round the Crown and Anchor tavern, where the meeting was held, the company dispersed at an early hour.

At Birmingham the causes of discord were more numerous than even in London. A violent animosity had subsisted for years between the high church party and the dissenters of that place; and the religious controversies which took place between Dr. Priestley and some of the clergy of Birmingham greatly contributed to increase this animosity.

In such circumstances, it is not surprising that the ignorant part of the inhabitants should confound the cause of the French revolution with that of the dissenters, especially since the majority of that persuasion have, since the Revolution in 1688, been firmly attached to the Whig system, and since Dr. Priestley, whom the populace considered as at the head of the dissenters there, had distinguished himself by opposing the celebrated pamphlet of Mr. Burke.

A festive meeting in commemoration of the French revolution was projected at Birmingham on Thursday the 14th of July; and on the preceding Monday, six copies of a most inflammatory and seditious hand-bill, proposing the French revolution as a model to the English, and exciting them to rebellion, were left by some person unknown in a public-house. As the contents of this hand-bill were pretty generally circulated, they caused some ferment in the town; the magistrates thought it proper to offer a reward of 100 guineas for discovering the author, printer, or publisher of the obnoxious paper; and the friends of the meeting intended for the 14th thought it necessary at the same time to publish an advertisement, explicitly denying the sentiments and doctrines of the seditious hand-bill, and disavowing all connexion with its author or publishers.

The views and intentions of the meeting having, however, been much misrepresented, the majority of the gentlemen who projected it thought it advisable to relinquish the scheme: accordingly notice was given to that effect; but the intention was revived, and the company met at the appointed time to the amount of between eighty and ninety. The ingenious Mr. Keir, well known for his great attainments in chemistry and other branches of philosophy, and a member of the established church, was placed in the chair.

The gentlemen had scarcely met, before the house was surrounded by a tumultuous crowd, who testified their disapprobation by hisses and groans, and by the shout of "church and king," which became the watch-word on this occasion. At five o'clock the company dispersed; and soon afterwards the windows in the front of the hotel were demolished, notwithstanding the appearance and interference of the magistrates.

Dr. Priestley did not attend the festival, but dined at home, at Fairhill, with a friend (the celebrated Mr. A. Walker, the philosopher) from London. After supper they were alarmed with the intelligence that the mob were assembled at the new dissenting meeting-house (Dr. Priestley's),

and were threatening both the doctor and his houſe. The rioters ſoon ſet the meeting-houſe on fire, and nothing remained that could be conſumed. The old meeting-houſe ſhared almoſt a ſimilar fate. After this they proceeded to Dr. Prieſtley's houſe, the doctor and his family having juſt had time to eſcape to a ſmall diſtance, where they could diſtinctly hear every ſhout of the mob, and the blows of the inſtruments which were uſed to break down the doors. The whole of the doctor's library, his valuable philoſophical apparatus, his manuſcripts and papers, were deſtroyed by the mob. The next day this infatuated multitude demoliſhed the elegant manſion of Mr. Ryland, where, finding a profuſion of liquor, a dreadful ſcene of intoxication enſued, and ſeveral of the wretched rioters periſhed in the cellars by ſuffocation, or by the falling in of the roof. The country reſidence of Mr. Taylor, the houſes of Mr. Hutton (the ingenious hiſtorian of Birmingham), of Mr. Humphrey, of Mr. Ruſſel, and ſeveral others, were deſtroyed by the reſiſtleſs fury of the mob, who continued their depredations until Sunday night, when three troops of the fifteenth regiment of light-dragoons arrived. The town was then illuminated, and all was acclamation and joy.—Of the unfortunate and infatuated wretches who were taken in the act of rioting, five were tried at Worceſter, and one was found guilty and executed. At Warwick twelve were tried; but only four received ſentence of death, of whom one was reprieved.—For the honour of our country, we indulge the earneſt hope that the diſgraceful ſcenes which were acted at Birmingham in 1791 will never be revived; but that, while the continent of Europe is unhappily drenched in human blood, this iſland will remain as conſpicuous for its harmony, order, and tranquillity, as for its conſtitutional freedom and national proſperity.

The marriage of the duke of York with the princeſs-royal of Pruſſia took place on the 29th of September, this year, at Berlin; and on the 25th of October they arrived in England, and were received with public joy and applauſe. The Pruſſian monarch gave to the princeſs a portion of 100,000 crowns. A formal renunciation is made, in favour of the male ſucceſſion, of all right of inheritance ariſing from the houſe of Pruſſia and Brandenburg, as uſually done on the marriages of the Pruſſian princeſſes. The ſum of 4000l. ſterling is annually aſſigned for pin-money and other expenſes; and 8000l. annually of jointure, in caſe of the death of her huſband. In conſequence of this union, and to enable his royal highneſs to live in a ſtyle ſuitable to his exalted ſtation, and to the high rank of the illuſtrious perſonage to whom he was allied, parliament voted the ſum of 18,000l. per annum to his royal highneſs. His majeſty alſo ſettled an additional 7000l. per annum upon him out of his Iriſh revenue; which, with 12,000l. per annum that he before enjoyed, make the ſum of 37,000l. per annum. The revenues ariſing from the biſhoprick of Oſnaburg are ſaid to amount to about 17,000l. per annum.

On the 2d of April, 1792, the houſe of commons, in a committee of the whole houſe on the African ſlave-trade, came to a reſolution, 230 againſt 85, for the gradual abolition. This ſubject was ſupported by the united talents of Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Pitt, for the immediate abolition. Mr. Dundas took a middle courſe, and argued for the gradual relinquiſhment of a traffic, which every good man muſt abhor, as degrading and debaſing our fellow-creatures to a level with beaſts. This bill, however, met with a different reception in the houſe of lords.

The royal proclamation on the 21ſt of May, 1792, againſt ſeditious writings, which was followed by orders for the embodying the militia of the kingdom, engaged a conſiderable ſhare of the public attention. It had the intended effect, and excited numerous addreſſes, teſtifying the loyalty of the people.

In the beginning of the year 1793, numerous aſſociations were formed throughout the kingdom againſt republican principles and theories, or, as the phraſe uſually adopted by ſuch aſſociations was, againſt republicans and levellers. To ſay that there were no perſons who had embraced republican principles, and would have been willing to concur in changing the form of the government of this country, would be abſurd; but there appears no reaſon to ſuppoſe that the cauſe for alarm was ſo great, as many imagined, and others at leaſt affected to believe. The truth lies between the two extremes. The controverſies occaſioned by the pamphlets of Meſſrs. Burke and Calonne, and particularly the writings of Mr. Paine, writings well adapted to the comprehenſion of the lower claſs of people, and pregnant with pointed remarks on ſome exiſting abuſes, though, perhaps, with little of ſound policy or principle to recommend them, had undoubtedly contributed to render the example of the French revolution in ſome degree contagious. But the diſaffected party was neither numerous nor reſpectable. The church, the ariſtocracy, and all the moſt opulent of the community, were averſe to any change or innovation whatever. It was among the lower part of the middle claſs of ſociety that democratical opinions were chiefly entertained, and among them more probably as a matter of converſation, than as a project to be reduced to practice. The violent proceedings of the French, however, had terrified the well-diſpoſed part of the people, and almoſt diſguſted them with the very name of reform. From the period of the fatal 10th of Auguſt, the converts from the French ſyſtem were numerous: the proſcription and perſecution of the emigrants rapidly increaſed the number; and the premeditated ill-treatment and unjuſt death of the king almoſt entirely annihilated the ſpirit of republicaniſm in this country. The public wanted only to be excited to give the moſt forcible proofs of its attachment to a conſtitution which had ſo wiſely provided againſt the intolerable perſecutions of tyranny, and the no leſs deplorable miſchiefs of faction.

The firſt diſpoſition manifeſted by Great Britain to break with France regarded the navigation of the Scheldt, which the French had determined to open for the benefit of Antwerp and the Netherlands. This impediment however might perhaps have been removed, from the little diſpoſition which was evinced by Holland to aſſert its right to the excluſive navigation, and from the readineſs of the French to refer the whole affair to a negotiation.

The next exception which was taken by the Engliſh miniſtry was to the decree of fraternity, which was offered by the French convention to the revolting ſubjects of any monarchical (or, as they ſaid, tyrannical) government, and which was conſtrued into a direct affront to this country, and a plot againſt her peace.

The alien bill, which the French complained was an infraction of the commercial treaty, was the next cauſe of diſpute; and this offence was augmented by the prohibition to export corn to France, while it was freely allowed to the powers at war with that country.

At length, towards the end of January, M. Chauvelin was officially informed by the Engliſh court, that his character and functions, ſo long ſuſpended, had entirely terminated by the *fatal* death of the king of

France; that he had no more any public character here, where his further reſidence was forbidden. Eight days were allowed for his departure; and this notification was publiſhed in the gazette. M. Maret had been ſent by the executive council of France with enlarged powers, and, it was ſaid, with very advantageous propoſals to Great Britain; but arriving in England exactly at the period of M. Chauvelin's diſmiſſion, he thought it prudent immediately to return home.

Mr. ſecretary Dundas, on the 28th of January, preſented to the houſe of commons a meſſage from the king, in which his majeſty expreſſed the neceſſity of making a further augmentation of his forces by ſea and land, for maintaining the ſecurity and rights of his own dominions, for ſupporting his allies, and for oppoſing views of aggrandiſement and ambition on the part of France. The queſtion in relation to this ſubject was carried by a great majority in favour of miniſters.

On the 25th of March, 1794, lord Grenville and S. Comte Woronzow ſigned a convention at London, on behalf of his Britannic majeſty and the empreſs of Ruſſia, in which their majeſties agree to employ their reſpective forces in carrying on the "juſt and neceſſary war" in which they were engaged againſt France; and they reciprocally promiſe *not to lay down their arms* but by common conſent. Notwithſtanding this ſolemn treaty, Catharine took no active part whatever in the war. Another treaty was concluded between his Britannic majeſty and the king of Sardinia, ſigned at London the 25th of April, by which Great Britain engaged to pay 200,000l. per annum to the king of Sardinia, and three months in advance. A treaty was likewiſe concluded between his highneſs the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel and his Britannic majeſty; the former was to furniſh 8,000 men for the war, during *three* years; in return for which, England was to pay 100,000l. levy-money, and 56,000l. ſterling per annum for ſix years. In this treaty, Great Britain engages to pay the landgrave a ſum of money for each Heſſian that is ſlain; ſo that the more of his men are killed, he will get the more money.

For the military operations of the war, we muſt refer our readers to our account of France, to the hiſtory of which country they moſt properly appertained.

The proſecutions which have taken place in England and Scotland for ſeditious words, and for libellous and dangerous publications, may certainly be conſidered as ſtrongly characteriſing the ſpirit of the times; we ſhall therefore give a conciſe account of ſome of the principal of theſe trials.

At Edinburgh, Thomas Muir, eſq. was tried before the high-court of juſticiary, for ſeditious practices. In the indictment, the priſoner was charged with wickedly and felonioufly exciting, by means of ſeditious ſpeeches and harangues, a ſpirit of diſloyalty and diſaffection to the king and the eſtabliſhed government; of producing and reading aloud in public meetings a ſeditious and inflammatory writing called "An Addreſs from the Society of United Iriſhmen in Dublin, to the Delegates for Promoting a Reform in Scotland," tending to produce in the minds of the people an inſurrection and oppoſition to the eſtabliſhed government. The jury being named, Mr. Muir objected to moſt of them: he obſerved, that as the gentlemen, however reſpectable, were all ſubſcribers to the Goldſmiths'-hall aſſociation, and had offered a reward for diſcovering thoſe who had circulated what they called ſeditious writings, they had already prejudged him, and were therefore improper

perſons to paſs upon his aſſize; but this objection was repelled by the court.

The moſt material witneſs againſt the accuſed was Anne Fiſher, a ſervant to his father: ſhe ſaid that ſhe carried from him to the printer a Declaration of Rights, marked with ſome corrections, to be printed: ſhe added, that ſhe had heard Mr. Muir talk to the countrymen coming to the ſhop of his father, very often, concerning Paine's Rights of Man, which ſhe heard him ſay was a very good book; that he wiſhed his hair-dreſſer to purchaſe them, and keep them in his ſhop to enlighten the people; that Mr. Muir ſaid, when the reform took place, he would be member for Calder; that members would then be allowed thirty or forty ſhillings a day, and that none but honeſt men would be admitted, to keep the conſtitution clean; and that ſhe had cauſed an organiſt in the ſtreets of Glaſgow to play *ça-ira* at Mr. Muir's deſire.

After a trial of ſixteen hours' duration, the jury returned a verdict, finding the priſoner *guilty*. The court then proceeded to pronounce ſentence, and ordered him to be tranſported beyond the ſeas, to ſuch place as his majeſty, with the advice of his privy-council, ſhould judge proper, for fourteen years. He was ſoon after ſent to Botany-Bay, whence he found means to eſcape in an American veſſel, and after a variety of extraordinary adventures and eſcapes, if the accounts that have been received are authentic, arrived in France, where he was received with public congratulations, as the martyr of liberty, and where he ſtill continues.

On the 17th of September, of the ſame year, the reverend Mr. Palmer, an Unitarian clergyman, reſiding at Dundee, was tried by the circuit court of juſticiary, before lords Eſgrove and Abercrombie. The indictment charged him with being preſent at a meeting held at Dundee, denominating itſelf "A Society of the Friends of the People;" that he did there put into the hands of George Mealmaker a writing of a ſeditious import, in the form of an addreſs to their friends and fellow-citizens, containing, among other ſeditious expreſſions, the following words: "You are plunged into a war by a wicked miniſter and a compliant parliament, who ſeem careleſs and unconcerned for your welfare; the end and deſign of which is almoſt too horrid to relate; the deſtruction of a whole people merely becauſe they will be free."—When the court proceeded to the examination of witneſſes, George Mealmaker, weaver in Dundee, acknowledged himſelf to be the author of the paper in queſtion; it appeared, however, that Mr. Palmer had corrected it, ordered it to be printed, and circulated it. The verdict was returned the ſame day, finding the priſoner guilty; in conſequence of which he was ſentenced to tranſportation for fourteen years. This gentleman was ſent to the hulks with Mr. Muir, and ſailed with him to Botany-Bay.

On the 21ſt of January, 1794, the two houſes met. The ſpeech from the throne enumerated with ſome degree of minuteneſs the advantages obtained by the allies, and exhorted to a ſpirited proſecution of the war, and to a reliance on the reſources of the country, and the ſtrength of our allies, for ultimate ſucceſs. The addreſs to his majeſty, in which the parliament agreed to ſupport him in the continuance of the war, was carried in favour of miniſtry by a very great majority.

In March following, the ſeceſſion of the king of Pruſſia from the great cauſe of the allies agitated the political world for ſeveral weeks, when it was announced that the whole proceeded from his inability to ſupply his troops from the reſources of his own country, and therefore that he muſt be ſubſidiſed to enable him to employ his forces for the

great purpoſe of reſtoring regular government to France. The parliament, influenced by the arguments which were advanced by the miniſter, voted the ſum of 2,500,000l. to be granted to his majeſty, to enable him to fulfil the ſtipulations of the treaty lately concluded with Pruſſia for the more vigorous proſecution of the war, and for ſuch exigencies as might ariſe in the year 1794. Notwithſtanding this freſh treaty, the Pruſſian monarch ſoon after entirely relinquiſhed the war, having found full occupation for himſelf and his troops in endeavouring to ſuppreſs the inſurrections in Poland, which we ſhall particularly notice in our narrative of the events of that unfortunate country.

On the 12th of May, 1794, a meſſage from his majeſty was brought down to the houſe by Mr. ſecretary Dundas, in which he informed them "that the ſeditious practices which had been for ſome time carried on by certain ſocieties in London, in correſpondence with ſocieties in different parts of the country, had lately been purſued with increaſed activity and boldneſs, and had been avowedly directed to the object of aſſembling a pretended general convention of the people, in contempt and defiance of the authority of parliament; that his majeſty had given orders for ſeizing the books and papers of theſe ſocieties, which were to be laid before the houſe; and that it was recommended to the houſe to conſider them, and to purſue ſuch meaſures as were neceſſary in order to prevent their pernicious tendency."

The ſame day Mr. Thomas Hardy, a ſhoemaker in Piccadilly, who had acted as ſecretary to the London Correſponding Society, and Mr. Daniel Adams, the ſecretary to the Society for Conſtitutional Information, were apprehended, by a warrant from Mr. Dundas, for treaſonable practices, and their books and papers ſeized. Mr. Horne Tooke, Mr. Jeremiah Joyce, preceptor to lord Mahon, and Mr. Thelwall, who had for ſome time entertained the town as a political lecturer, were afterwards, in the courſe of the week, arreſted and committed to the Tower, on a charge of high treaſon.

On the day following the ſeizure of the papers of theſe ſocieties, they were brought down ſealed to the houſe of commons by Mr. Dundas, and referred to a committee of ſecrecy, conſiſting of twenty-one members.

In conſequence of the firſt report of the committee of ſecrecy, with reſpect to the plans which had been formed by theſe ſocieties for holding a general convention of the people, and intimating their ſuſpicions that large ſtands of arms had been collected by theſe ſocieties in order to diſtribute them among the lower orders of the people, the chancellor of the exchequer moved "for leave for a bill to empower his majeſty to ſecure and detain ſuch perſons as his majeſty ſuſpected were conſpiring againſt his perſon and government." By this bill the temporary ſuſpenſion of the *Habeas Corpus* act is affected. It was carried, on the miniſter's motion, by a majority of 162.

On the firſt of June 1794, the Britiſh fleet under the command of admiral lord Howe obtained a ſignal victory over that of the French, in which two ſhips were ſunk, one burnt, and ſix brought into Portſmouth harbour.

On the 10th of September a ſpecial commiſſion of oyer and terminer was iſſued for the priſoners confined on a charge of high-treaſon in the Tower of London; and on the ſecond of October it was opened at the ſeſſions-houſe, Clerkenwell, by the lord chief juſtice Eyre, in an elaborate charge to the grand jury; and in the courſe of their proceedings the jury found a bill of indictment againſt Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, and ten others; and on the 28th of October, Thomas Hardy,

the late ſecretary to the London Correſponding Society, was put on his trial at the Old-Bailey. Mr. Wood opened the pleadings, and ſtated nine overt acts of high treaſon with which the priſoner was charged. When he had finiſhed, ſir John Scott, the attorney-general, in a ſpeech of nine hours, went into a very minute detail of the ſubject of theſe proſecutions for high-treaſon. The counſel for the proſecution then proceeded to produce their evidence, which conſiſted of papers that had been found in the cuſtody of different perſons, and ſeized under the warrant of the privy-council.

Previouſly to the court's breaking up, about twelve o'clock, a converſation enſued reſpecting the gentlemen of the jury, who wiſhed to be diſcharged on their honour; to which Mr. Erſkine, on behalf of the priſoner, conſented; but the court were of opinion that the law would not permit the jury to ſeparate after having been once impanelled. The jury were therefore conſigned to the care of the ſheriffs, by whom preparations for their accommodation in the ſeſſions-houſe had been previouſly made; and, the next day, the jury having complained that their accommodations were uncomfortable, and incapable of affording them the neceſſary reſt, they were provided that evening, and all the ſubſequent evenings of the trial, with beds at the Hummums in Covent-Garden.

The 29th, 30th, and 31ſt of October, were employed in the production of evidence for the crown, both documentary and oral, which latter took up great part of the morning of November 1. This being finiſhed, Mr. Erſkine, in behalf of the priſoner, addreſſed the jury for the ſpace of ſix hours. The remainder of the day was occupied in the examination of witneſſes for the priſoner; many of whom gave him an excellent character.

The court adjourned at half paſt twelve on Sunday morning November 2, till the Monday following, when the counſel for the priſoner proceeded with their evidence; after which Mr. Gibbs likewiſe addreſſed the court in his favour. He was followed by the ſolicitor-general in reply. The next day the ſolicitor-general concluded his reply, and the lord-preſident commenced the ſumming up the evidence; which he reſumed the following day, and finiſhed about noon. The jury then retired, and, after having been abſent two hours and a half, returned, and delivered their verdict—Not guilty.

On Monday, November 17, the court again met, and proceeded on the trial of John Horne Tooke, eſq. on the ſame charge of high-treaſon. This trial was conducted in the ſame manner as the preceding, and ended on the Saturday following about eight in the evening, when the jury retired, and, in a few minutes, returned with their verdict—Not guilty.

On Monday the 6th of December, the court again met, and John Auguſtus Bonney, Jeremiah Joyce, Stewart Kyd, and Thomas Holcroft (who much to his honour, though not in cuſtody, had ſurrendered himſelf as ſoon as the bill was found againſt him by the grand jury), were arraigned; and a jury was ſworn in; when the attorney-general informed the court that he ſhould decline going into the evidence againſt the priſoners, as it was the ſame that had been adduced on the two late trials, and on which, after the moſt mature conſideration, a verdict of acquittal had been given. The priſoners were of courſe acquitted and diſcharged.

Mr. Thelwall was then put to the bar, and, after a trial of five days, acquitted.

Thus ended theſe memorable trials, the iſſue of which the country awaited with the utmoſt agitation and anxious ſuſpenſe, until the juſt and temperate verdict of an honeſt jury had defended the law of the land againſt the dangerous innovation of conſtructive treaſons.

On the 8th of April, 1795, were celebrated the nuptials of his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, with her highneſs the princeſs Caroline of Brunſwick: on which occaſion a bill was paſſed for enabling his majeſty to grant a ſuitable eſtabliſhment to his royal highneſs, and for regulating the liquidation of his debts. Another bill was likewiſe paſſed for preventing future princes of Wales from incurring debts.

Towards the cloſe of this year, a dreadful and oppreſſive ſcarcity pervaded the kingdom. The price of the half-peck loaf roſe in the metropolis to half-a-crown; and in ſome other places it was ſtill higher. Several inſtances occurred of perſons who periſhed through abſolute want; and the poor were every-where in the utmoſt diſtreſs. A committee of the houſe of commons was appointed to conſider of the high price of corn. They drew up, and entered into, an engagement to uſe only brown bread, and reduce the conſumption of wheat in their families, by every poſſible expedient. This engagement was ſigned by the principal perſons in the miniſtry, and a great number of the members of both houſes.

On the 29th of October, the king opened the ſeſſion of parliament. Immenſe crowds were aſſembled, who at length became riotous, loudly exclaiming, "No war!—No Pitt!—No famine!" A few voices, it is ſaid, were heard to exclaim—"Down with George!"—In the park, and in the ſtreets adjacent to Weſtminſter-hall, ſome ſtones and other things were thrown, nine of which, it is aſſerted, ſtruck the ſtate-coach; and one of them, which was ſuſpected to have proceeded from a window in Margaret-ſtreet, near the abbey, perforated one of the windows, by a ſmall circular aperture; from which circumſtance it was ſuppoſed, by ſome, to have been a bullet diſcharged from an air-gun, or ſome ſimilar engine of deſtruction; but no bullet was found; and whatever it was, it neither touched the king nor the noblemen who attended him. As his majeſty returned from the houſe through the park, though the gates of the Horſe-guards were ſhut to exclude the mob, this precaution was not ſufficient to prevent a renewal of the outrages; and another ſtone was thrown at the carriage as it paſſed oppoſite to Spring-garden terrace. After the king had alighted at St. James's, the populace attacked the ſtate-carriage; and, in its way through Pall-Mall to the Mews, it was almoſt demoliſhed.

In conſequence of theſe daring inſults and outrages, a proclamation was iſſued, offering a reward of one thouſand pounds to any perſon or perſons, other than thoſe actually concerned in doing any act by which his majeſty's royal perſon was immediately endangered, who ſhould give information ſo that any of the authors and abettors in that outrage might be apprehended and brought to juſtice.

Several perſons were apprehended on ſuſpicion of having inſulted his majeſty, one of whom, named Kyd Wake, a journeyman printer, was brought to trial, and found guilty of hooting, groaning, and hiſſing at the king. He was ſentenced to ſtand in the pillory at Glouceſter, on a market-day, to be impriſoned, and kept to labour, during five years, in the penitentiary houſe at Glouceſter, and, at the expiration of his impriſonment, to find ſecurity for one thouſand pounds for his good behaviour for ten years.

In the two houſes, after an addreſs had been voted teſtifying their in-

dignation and abhorrence at the daring outrages offered to his majeſty, two bills were immediately brought in, the one by lord Grenville in the upper houſe, entitled, "An act for the ſafety and preſervation of his majeſty's perſon and government againſt treaſonable and ſeditious practices and attempts;" and the other by Mr. Pitt, in the houſe of commons, entitled, "An act to prevent ſeditious meetings and aſſemblies." Theſe bills were vigorouſly oppoſed in both houſes, though only by the uſual minorities, in point of numbers. Petitions, with very numerous ſignatures, were likewiſe preſented againſt them from every part of the kingdom. They, however, paſſed, and are now become a part of the law of the land,

On the 8th of December, a meſſage from his majeſty was brought down to the houſe of commons, ſignifying a diſpoſition to enter into a negotiation with France, the government of that country having at length aſſumed ſuch a form as to render a treaty with it practicable. Mr. Wickham, the Britiſh plenipotentiary to the Swiſs Cantons, was appointed, in conſequence, to make ſome overtures, through the medium of Mr. Barthelemi, the French envoy at Baſle; but this feeble attempt at negotiation ſoon terminated without effect.

An apparently much more ſerious offer of this nature was made the following year. About the latter end of the month of September, 1796, through the intervention of the Daniſh miniſter at Paris, a paſſport was applied for and obtained for a confidential perſon to be ſent to Paris from the court of London, commiſſioned to diſcuſs with the French government the means moſt proper for conducing to the re-eſtabliſhment of peace. Lord Malmeſbury was the perſon appointed by the Britiſh court to undertake this miſſion. His lordſhip accordingly repaired to Paris, where he continued about two months. It was propoſed, on the part of England, as the baſis of the treaty, that France ſhould reſtore the Netherlands to the emperor, and evacuate Italy; in which caſe England engaged to reſtore all the conqueſts made on that power in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. The French directory replied, that they could not conſent to propoſals contrary to the conſtitution, to the laws, and to the treaties which bind the republic. Thus ended this negotiation.

The beginning of the year 1797 was diſtinguiſhed by as extraordinary an event as perhaps ever occurred in this or any other war—the invaſion of Great Britain by a force of twelve hundred men, without artillery, and almoſt without accoutrements. The alarm at firſt was general, and great, throughout the whole of Pembrokeſhire, on the coaſt of which the landing was made; but the men ſurrendered on the approach of a very inadequate force, and almoſt without reſiſtance. On inquiry, it appeared that they conſiſted entirely of galley-ſlaves, and other criminals, from Breſt; and the object was ſuppoſed to be at once to create an alarm on the Britiſh coaſt, and to rid the French republic of a number of deſperate perſons; but whatever the intentions of the enemy might be, they met, on the whole, with a complete diſappointment; for not only the expedition proved entirely fruitleſs, but, as two of the ſhips which diſembarked the men were returning into Breſt harbour, they were captured by the St. Fiorenzo and Nymph frigates.

The apprehenſions excited by this circumſtance had ſcarcely ſubſided, when a more ſerious cauſe of alarm occurred to agitate the minds of the public. The bank of England diſcontinued the iſſuing of ſpecie in their cuſtomary payments. A run (to ſpeak in the commercial phraſeology) had taken place upon ſome of the country banks; and the great demand for ſpecie from the bank of England induced the directors to lay the

ſtate of their company before the miniſter; in conſequence of which an order of council was made on the 26th of February, prohibiting the farther iſſue of ſpecie from the bank. This order was afterwards ſanctioned and ratified by an act of parliament, by which the reſtriction was continued to midſummer, and afterwards by another act, continuing it to the end of the preſent war.

On the third of March, government received intelligence of an important advantage obtained by the Britiſh fleet, under the command of ſir John Jervis, over a Spaniſh fleet of much ſuperior force, on the 14th of February, off Cape St. Vincent. The Engliſh admiral, by a ſucceſsful manœuvre, ſeparated the rear of the enemy's fleet from the main body, and captured two ſhips of 112 guns, one of 84, and one of 74.

The ſeamen of England, however, who had ſo long been the defence and the glory of the nation, ſeemed ſuddenly to conſpire its overthrow. In the middle of April a moſt alarming mutiny broke out on board the grand Channel fleet at Spithead, under the command of lord Bridport. The ſailors required an advance of their pay, and certain regulations to be adopted relative to the allowance of proviſions. They appointed delegates, two for each ſhip, who for ſeveral days had the entire command of the whole fleet, over which no officer had the leaſt authority. In this critical ſituation, government deemed it moſt expedient to promiſe a full compliance with all their demands; on which they cheerfully returned to their duty. But in a week or two afterwards, no act of indemnity having been offered in parliament for the ſecurity of thoſe concerned in the mutiny, they again roſe, deprived their officers of their authority, and the diſpute ſeemed to wear a more gloomy aſpect than before. A bill, ſecuring to the ſeamen what they had been promiſed, was therefore haſtily paſſed through both houſes, and lord Howe went down to Portſmouth to act as mediator. The delegates of the fleet declared themſelves ſatisfied, and harmony and good order was immediately reſtored.

The ferment, however, ſtill remained in other parts of the navy; and ſoon after, the ſeamen of ſome ſhips lying at Sheerneſs began to mutiny, and behaved riotouſly; and ſo contagious was the ſpirit of inſurrection now become among the ſeamen, that almoſt all the ſhips of admiral Duncan's fleet at Yarmouth appointed delegates, and ſailed away to the Nore, to join the ſhips from Sheerneſs. New grievances were required to be redreſſed, and new and extravagant demands to be complied with; government was now convinced that to yield would only be to encourage a repetition of ſimilar proceedings; and every diſpoſition was therefore made to force theſe ſhips to ſubmiſſion. All communication between them and the ſhore was cut off, and no proviſions or water ſuffered to go to them. The mutineers, to ſupply themſelves with theſe, detained all veſſels coming up the river, and took out of them whatever they choſe, for which their delegates, the principal of whom was one Richard Parker, a man of ſtrong natural abilities, gave draughts on the treaſury, as taken for the uſe of the navy of England. At length, being reduced to great want of water, and diſſenſions and diſtruſt prevailing among themſelves, ſeveral ſhips left the mutinous fleet, and ſurrendered themſelves at Sheerneſs. Some of theſe were fired upon by the others; but at length they all came in, and gave up their delegates, who, with a number of others that were conſidered as principals in the mutiny, were tried by a court-martial. Some of them were executed, others ſentenced to different puniſhments, and the reſt pardoned. Richard Parker, who had acted as commander of the fleet while in a ſtate of mutiny, was the

firſt who was tried and executed. He diſplayed great preſence of mind, and ſuffered with the utmoſt firmneſs and fortitude.

As if to eraſe this ſtain from the annals of the Britiſh navy, the fleet of admiral Duncan, conſiſting principally of the ſhips which had been engaged in this unhappy and diſgraceful mutiny, ſailed ſoon after to watch the motions of the Dutch fleet in the Texel, where it remained for ſome time blockaded, till, on its venturing out, an engagement enſued, in which the Engliſh fleet obtained a complete victory, taking the Dutch admiral De Winter, the vice-admiral, and nine ſhips.

In conſequence of this ſignal victory, admiral Duncan was created viſcount Duncan; and on account of this and the other naval ſucceſſes of the war, the 19th of December was appointed to be obſerved as a thankſgiving day, on which day his majeſty and both houſes of parliament went in ſolemn proceſſion to St. Paul's, to return thanks to heaven for the victories gained by his fleets.

In the courſe of this year, another attempt was made by the Britiſh cabinet to negotiate a treaty of peace with France. The preliminaries of a peace between the French republic and the emperor having been ſigned at Leoben, in the month of April, by which the Netherlands were given up to France, the difficulty which had broken off the laſt negotiation appeared to be in ſome meaſure removed, and applications were again made to the French government for paſſports for a perſon who might enter into diſcuſſions relative to the baſis of a future treaty. Lord Malmeſbury was again appointed to this miſſion; but the French directory objected to his coming to Paris, and appointed Liſle for the place of the conference with commiſſioners they ſent thither for that purpoſe. What the Netherlands. however, had been in the former attempt to treat, the Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon proved in the preſent; and, after a ſtay of nearly three months, lord Malmeſbury, not being able to declare himſelf empowered to conſent to the ſurrender of all the conqueſts made from France or her allies, was abruptly ordered to depart, and, on the 20th of September, returned as before, not having effected the object of his miſſion.

In the following month, the definitive treaty between the French republic and the emperor was concluded and ratified; and the French, having little other employent for their armies, began to talk loudly of an immediate invaſion of England. The directory aſſembled a large army along the coaſts oppoſite to Great Britain, which they called the army of England; and a variety of idle reports were propagated relative to preparations ſaid to be making in the ports of France; among others, that rafts of an enormous ſize and peculiar conſtruction were building for the conveyance of troops. The Britiſh miniſtry did not ſuffer theſe ridiculous exaggerations, nor even the evident abſurdity and raſhneſs of any attempt at an invaſion of England, in the face of a fleet ſo decidedly ſuperior to that of every enemy united, to produce an improper ſecurity, but took ſuch meaſures of precaution as were moſt proper for the general defence of the kingdom, and to guard the different parts of the country from the miſchievous conſequences of a ſudden attack. But the threats of the enemy were not even attempted to be carried into execution; and the directory ſoon after turned their views towards another quarter of the globe, by fitting out, at Toulon, a formidable expedition, which, about the latter end of May, ſailed for Egypt, under the command of the celebrated Buonaparte, probably with a view to prepare the way, by the conqueſt of that country, for an attack on the Britiſh ſettlements in India.

In the courſe of the preparations made for the invaſion of England, a number of tranſports had been fitted out at Fluſhing, and ſome other of the ports of Holland, which were to come round by the canals to Dunkirk and Oſtend, in order to avoid the Britiſh cruizers. An expedition was therefore fitted out in May 1798, under the command of captain Home Popham, and major-general Coote, which landed a body of troops at Oſtend, who blew up and entirely deſtroyed the ſluice-gates and works of the canal at that place, and burnt ſeveral veſſels that were intended for tranſports. Unfortunately, when the troops were ready to reimbark, the wind had changed, and the ſea ran ſo high, that it was found to be impoſſible; and the enemy, in the mean time, collected round them in ſuch force, that general Coote, and thoſe who had landed with him, amounting to nearly a thouſand men, were obliged to ſurrender themſelves priſoners.

Towards the latter end of this year, intelligence was received of the moſt brilliant victory ever gained at ſea, even by the Britiſh navy, which has obtained ſuch unequalled glory, on ſo many occaſions, in the courſe of the preſent war. On the firſt of Auguſt, admiral ſir Horatio Nelſon, who had been detached by earl St. Vincent, in purſuit of the French fleet which, as was mentioned above, ſailed from Toulon in May, having received a reinforcement of ten ſail of the line, arrived off the mouth of the Nile, where he found the enemy, and immediately made diſpoſitions for an attack. The French fleet was at anchor in the bay of Aboukir. The admiral's ſhip carried a hundred and twenty guns, and above a thouſand men; three had eighty guns each, and nine had ſeventy-four. They were drawn up near the ſhore in a ſtrong and compact line of battle, flanked by four frigates and many gun-boats, and protected in the van by a battery planted in a ſmall iſland. Their ſituation, therefore, was extremely advantageous for defence; but the great danger of an attack did not deter the Britiſh admiral from making the attempt. He had as many ſhips of the line as the French commander, and he ſtrengthened his line by the introduction of a ſhip of fifty guns; but in approaching the enemy, he was deprived of the aſſiſtance of the Culloden, as it ſtruck upon a ſhoal, from which it could not be extricated before the next morning. Three other veſſels were haſtily advancing in its rear; but the accident warned them of the danger, and they were ſo fortunate as to avoid the ſhoal. The admiral was extremely deſirous to break the line of the French, and ſurround a part of the fleet, and he ably executed his purpoſe. At ſun-ſet the engagement commenced; and both parties fought with the utmoſt fury. While the victory was yet undecided, the French admiral Brueys received two wounds, and, having changed his ſituation, was, ſoon after, deprived of life by a cannon ſhot. When the action had continued for two hours, two of the French ſhips were captured; a third ſtruck ſoon after; and the whole van was in the power of the Engliſh, who eagerly proceeded to a completion of their victory. About nine at night, a fire was obſerved on board L'Orient, the French admiral's ſhip, which increaſed with great rapidity till about ten o'clock, when ſhe blew up with a dreadful exploſion. An awful pauſe and ſilence for about three minutes ſucceeded, when the wreck of the maſts and yards, which had been carried to a vaſt height, fell down into the water, and on board the ſurrounding ſhips. After this awful ſcene, the engagement was proſecuted at intervals till day-break; and only two of the French ſhips of the line, and two frigates, eſcaped capture or deſtruction. Nine ſail of the line were taken, and one, beſides L'Orient, was burned, her own

captain ſetting fire to her. A frigate alſo was burned by her commander. Captain Hood, in the Zealous, purſued the retiring veſſels; but he was ſoon recalled by the admiral, as none of the ſhips could ſupport him in the chace.

This ſignal victory not only gave the Britiſh fleet the entire command of the Mediterranean, but appeared to infuſe freſh courage into all the powers on the continent to renew their exertions againſt France. The Turks declared war with the republic, and the king of Naples attacked and took poſſeſſion of Rome, then in the power of the French. But the reverſe he afterwards experienced, and the other events of the campaign in Italy will be related in our ſummary of the affairs of France.

About the ſame time that intelligence of this glorious victory was received, ſir John Borlaſe Warren defeated, off the coaſt of Ireland, a French ſquadron conſiſting of one ſhip of the line, the Hoche, and eight frigates, with troops and ammunition on board. On the 11th of October they were deſcried by the Britiſh ſquadron. At half paſt ſeven on the morning of the 12th the action commenced; and at eleven, the Hoche, after a gallant defence, ſtruck: the frigates then made ſail away, and the ſignal for a general chace was immediately made by the admiral. After a running fight of five hours, three of the frigates were captured; and three others afterwards became prizes. Thus the whole ſquadron, two frigates excepted, fell into the hands of the Britiſh; and the hopes of the French, as well as of the malcontents in Ireland, were completely defeated.

To complete the ſucceſſes of the year, the fortreſs of Ciudadella, and the iſland of Minorca, ſurrendered on the 15th of November to general Stuart and commodore Duckworth. This acquiſition was made without the loſs of a man.

In the beginning of May, 1799, a new war having taken place in India with Tippoo Saib, Seringapatam, his capital, was taken, and himſelf killed in the aſſault, by the Britiſh troops under the command of lieutenant-general Harris. Of the capture of this important place, and the conſequent addition of the greater part of the Myſore country to the territory of the Eaſt-India company, a further account will be found in our hiſtory of the Britiſh tranſactions and conqueſts in Hindooſtan.

In the month of Auguſt following, an expedition was fitted out in the Weſt Indies under the command of lieutenant-general Trigge, and vice-admiral lord Hugh Seymour, conſiſting of two ſhips of the line, five frigates, and ſeveral tranſports carrying ſtores and proviſions: it arrived on the 16th of that month off the mouth of the river Surinam; when the fort New Amſterdam, and the town of Paramaribo, the capital of the Dutch colony of Surinam, ſurrendered by capitulation to the Britiſh commanders without attempting reſiſtance.

But the principal military operation undertaken by Great Britain, in this year, was the expedition fitted out to reſcue Holland from the yoke of the French, in which about 30,000 Britiſh troops were employed, who were joined in Holland by 17,000 Ruſſians, taken into the pay of England. The firſt diviſion of this armament, under ſir Ralph Abercrombie, ſailed from Deal and Margate on the 13th of Auguſt, for the Helder-point, at the mouth of the Texel; but encountered ſuch unfavourable and violent gales, that the troops could not effect a landing at the place of their deſtination till the morning of the 27th. A hotly conteſted action then took place between the Britiſh and the French and Dutch troops; but the valour of the former ultimately triumphed; and the enemy evacuated the batteries and works of the Helder; and ſeven

Dutch men of war and thirteen Indiamen ſurrendered to the fleet under admiral Mitchell, who immediately after ſtood down into the Texel, and offered battle to the Dutch fleet lying there, the whole of which, conſiſting of twelve ſhips of war, ſurrendered to the Engliſh admiral, the Dutch ſailors refuſing to fight, and compelling their officers to give up their ſhips for the ſervice of the prince of Orange.

On the 13th the duke of York arrived in Holland, with the ſecond diviſion, and took upon him the command of the army; and on the 19th an engagement took place between the Britiſh and Ruſſians and the French, in which the former failed in their attack, in conſequence of the Ruſſians ſuffering themſelves to be thrown into diſorder by their impetuoſity and haſte, which occaſioned them to ſuffer ſeverely—their loſs amounting to 1500 men, and their general, who was taken priſoner. The army, however, ſoon recovered from the effects of this check, and, on the 2d of October, after a hard-fought battle of twelve hours, compelled the enemy to retreat, and took poſſeſſion of the town of Alkmaar. But here the ſucceſs of the expedition terminated. The enemy had received a reinforcement of about 6,000 men, and occupied a ſtrongly fortified poſition, which it would be neceſſary to carry before the army could advance; beſides which, the ſtate of the weather, the ruined condition of the roads, and the conſequent total want of the ſupplies neceſſary for the army, preſented ſuch inſurmountable difficulties, that in two days afterwards it was judged expedient to withdraw the troops from their advanced poſition; and as it now appeared that there could be no hope of ſucceſs in any attempt to proſecute further the object of the expedition, the duke, in conjunction with vice-admiral Mitchell, concluded an armiſtice with general Brune, who commanded the French and Batavian armies, the principal conditions of which were, that eight thouſand French and Batavian priſoners, taken before that campaign, ſhould be reſtored to their reſpective countries; that the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army ſhould evacuate the territory, coaſts, iſlands, and internal navigation of the Dutch republic, by the 30th of November, 1799, without committing any devaſtation by inundations, cutting the dykes, or otherwiſe injuring the ſources of navigation; and that the mounted batteries taken poſſeſſion of at the Helder, or at other poſitions, ſhould be reſtored in the ſtate in which they were taken, or, in caſe of improvement, in the ſtate in which they then were, together with all the Dutch artillery taken in them.

Such was the termination of an expedition, the failure of which, when it was planned, was conſidered as almoſt impoſſible; and which, in fact, commenced with ſuch brilliant advantages, and ſo fair a proſpect of complete ſucceſs. Yet it muſt not be forgotten, that the capture of the Dutch fleet has nearly annihilated the naval power of the new Batavian republic, and ſecured ſtill more to Britain the ſovereignty of the ſeas, which is her only protection, the ſource of all her wealth and all her glory.

In the month of November, a new revolution took place in the government of France. The celebrated Buonaparte having returned from Egypt, diſplaced the directory, and aſſumed a kind of dictatorial power, under the title of *Firſt Conſul*, according to a new conſtitution which he procured to be framed and accepted. In order to induce the people to conſent to this change, by which he was inveſted with the ſupreme authority, he promiſed them that he would take effectual meaſures to put an end to the miſeries and deſtruction of war. In purſuance of this promiſe, on the very day on which he entered on his new dignity, he

addreſſed a note immediately to the king of Great Britain, in which he expreſſed a wiſh to contribute effectually to a general pacification; and in a ſecond note, afterwards tranſmitted by M. Talleyrand, to the Engliſh miniſtry, propoſed "an immediate ſuſpenſion of arms, and that plenipotentiaries on each ſide ſhould repair to Dunkirk, or any other town as advantageouſly ſituated, for the quickneſs of the reſpective communications, and who ſhould apply themſelves, without any delay, to effect the re-eſtabliſhment of peace and a good underſtanding between the French republic and England."—The Britiſh miniſtry, however, ſhowed no diſpoſition to accede to the overture, probably conceiving the new government of France not to have as yet acquired ſufficient ſtability to be treated with, and encouraged, by the ſucceſs which had attended the arms of the allies in the preceding campaign, to hope that they ſhould be able ſtill more effectually to humble and weaken France by a continuance of the war.

Yet we truſt we ſhall not be deemed either wanting in reſpect for the government, or deficient in real love for our country, ſhould we recommend to the rulers of nations to recollect the uncertainty of the event of a campaign, and how frequently the jealouſies of allied powers, whoſe views and intereſts cannot be the ſame, diſſolve the firmeſt leagues, and fruſtrate the beſt concerted plans; how expenſive, and frequently ruinous, are the triumphs of war; and how extenſively beneficial and ſolid are the advantages of peace, even though purchaſed by conſiderable conceſſions, and the ſacrifice of a falſe honour.

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## Genealogical List of the Royal Family of Great Britain.

George-William-Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760; and married, September 8, 1761, to the princeſs Sophia-Charlotte, of Mecklenburg Strelitz born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have iſſue:

1. George-Auguſtus-Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12, 1762; married, April 8, 1795, to her highneſs the princeſs Caroline of Brunſwick; has iſſue, Jan. 7, 1796, a princeſs.
2. Prince Frederic, born Auguſt 16, 1763; elected biſhop of Oſnaburg, February 27, 1764; created duke of York and Albany, November 7, 1784. K. G. and K. B.; married, September 29, 1791, Frederica-Charlotta-Ulrica-Catharina, princeſs royal of Pruſſia.
3. Prince William-Henry, born Auguſt 21, 1765; created duke of Clarence, K. G. and K. T.
4. Charlotte-Auguſta-Matilda, princeſs royal of England, born September 29, 1766; married, May 18, 1797, to his ſerene highneſs Frederic-William, hereditary prince of Wurtemberg Stuttgardt.
5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767; created duke of Kent, April, 1799.
6. Princeſs Auguſta-Sophia, born November 8, 1768.
7. Princeſs Elizabeth, born May 27, 1770.
8. Prince Erneſt-Auguſtus, born June 5, 1771; created duke of Cumberland, April, 1799.
9. Prince Frederic-Auguſtus, born January 27, 1773.
10. Prince Adolphus-Frederic, born February 24, 1774.
11. Princeſs Mary, born April 25, 1776.
12. Princeſs Sophia, born November 3, 1777.

13. Princeſs Amelia, born Auguſt 7, 1783.

Iſſue of the late prince of Wales by the princeſs Auguſta of Saxe-Gotha, now living:

1. Her royal highneſs Auguſta, born Auguſt 11, 1737; married the hereditary prince (now duke) of Brunſwick Lunenburg, January 16, 1764.

2. His preſent majeſty.

3. Prince William-Henry, duke of Glouceſter, born November 25, 1743.

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# WALES.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet, as it has diſtinction in language and manners, we have, in conformity with common cuſtom, aſſigned it a ſeparate article.

## Extent and Situation.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 130 | between | 51 and 54 | North latitude. |
| Breadth | 96 | between | 2,41 and 4,56 | Weſt longitude. |

Area in ſquare miles, 7011.

Name and language.] The Welch, according to the beſt antiquaries, are deſcendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a ſettlement in England about fourſcore years before the firſt deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being promiſcuouſly uſed by the ancient Britons), that is, Strangers. Their language is a dialect of the Celtic, or language of the ancient Gauls, probably little changed by time, and is highly commended for its pathetic and deſcriptive powers.

Boundaries.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at preſent, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themſelves maſters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were ſhut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat weſtward. It does not however appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conqueſts in their country than Monmouthſhire and Herefordſhire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits, comprehending twelve counties. See England.

Climate, soil, and water.] The ſeaſons are nearly the ſame as in the northern parts of England, and the air is ſharp, but wholeſome. The ſoil of Wales, eſpecially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich valleys, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of freeſtone and ſlate, ſeveral mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well ſupplied with wholeſome ſprings; and its chief rivers are the Clwyd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furniſh Flintſhire with great quantities of fiſh.

Mountains.] It would be endleſs to particulariſe the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonſhire, and Plinlimmon, which

lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganſhire, are the moſt famous; and their mountainous ſituation greatly aſſiſted the natives in making ſo noble and long a ſtruggle againſt the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. In theſe particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horſes are ſmaller, but can endure vaſt fatigue; and their black cattle are ſmall likewiſe, but excellent beef; and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. Some very promiſing mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron, have been diſcovered in Wales. The Welch ſilver may be known by its being ſtamped with the oſtrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The inhabitants of Wales are ſuppoſed to amount to about 300,000; and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the neceſſaries and many of the conveniences of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in ſome years ago about forty-three thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-two pounds a-year. The Welch are, if poſſible, more jealous of their liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſcible; but their anger ſoon abates; and they are remarkable for their ſincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the moſt remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be coeval with the beginning of the Chriſtian æra. It is however certain, that great part of their hiſtory, eſpecially the eccleſiaſtical, is more ancient, and better atteſted, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieſſin, who lived about the year 450, and whoſe works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the hiſtory which makes the preſent Welch the deſcendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius ſeems to have influenced the ancient Welch with an enthuſiaſm for independency; for which reaſon Edward I. is ſaid to have made a general maſſacre of the bards: an inhumanity which was characteriſtical of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, and are remarkable for ſtill maintaining the ancient hoſpitality, and their ſtrict adherence to ancient cuſtoms and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the ſtream of faſhion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better ſort of the Welch ſpeak the Engliſh language, though numbers of them underſtand the Welch.

RELIGION.] The maſſacre of the Welch clergy by Auguſtine, the popiſh apoſtle of England, becauſe they would not conform to the Romiſh ritual, has been already mentioned. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romiſh clergy inſinuated themſelves into their favour, by their pretended power of abſolving them from crimes; and the Welch, when their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themſelves to the religion of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and Engliſh. Their poverty was formerly a great diſcouragement to religion and learning; but the meaſures taken by the ſociety for propagating Chriſtian knowledge have in a great degree removed the reproach of

ignorance from the poorer ſort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two ſchoolmaſters were employed to remove from place to place for the inſtruction of the inhabitants; and their ſcholars amounted to 72,264. No people have diſtinguiſhed themſelves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print, at a vaſt expenſe, Bibles, Common-prayers, and other religious books, and diſtribute them gratis to the poorer ſort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-ſchool.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Wales is that of the church of England; but the common people in many places are ſo tenacious of their ancient cuſtoms, that they retain ſeveral of the Romiſh ſuperſtitions, and ſome ancient families among them are ſtill Roman-catholics. It is likewiſe ſaid that Wales abounds with Romiſh prieſts in diſguiſe. The principality alſo contains great numbers of proteſtant diſſenters.

For BISHOPRICKS,—ſee England. In former times, Wales contained more biſhopricks than it does now; and about the time of the Norman invaſion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a ſeat of learning at a very early period; but it ſuffered an eclipſe by the repeated maſſacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales, when it was perſecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch diſpute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrenſis, whoſe hiſtory was publiſhed by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions ſeveral learned men of the ſame country, who flouriſhed before the Reformation. The diſcovery of the famous king Arthur's and his wife's burying-place was owing to ſome lines of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced ſeveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman-catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were ſeveral gentlemen of the name of Llhuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work, the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewiſe a Welchman; as was that great ſtateſman and prelate, the lord-keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York in the time of king Charles I. After all, it appears, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquities, language, and hiſtory of their own country. Wales, notwithſtanding all that Dr. Hicks and other antiquaries have ſaid to the contrary, furniſhed the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonſtrated by Mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted authority. (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua.) The excellent hiſtory of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury, may be adduced as another production of Welch literature.

With regard to the preſent ſtate of literature among the Welch, it is ſufficient to ſay, that ſome of them make a conſiderable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent ſcholars. The Welch Pater-noſter is as follows:

*Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt, yn y nefoedd, ſanctaiddier dy enw: deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro in i heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a madden i ni ein dyledion, fel y madd.uwn ni*

*i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn eos eoſoedd.* Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Angleſey*, and has a harbour for ſhips. Brecknock trades in clothing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and ſilver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and aldermen, who wear ſcarlet gowns, and other enſigns of ſtate. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradeſmen; and part of the country is ſo fertile and pleaſant, that it is called Little England. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular. It is, however, to be obſerved, that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at preſent; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly built, and ſo well ſituated, that they might be turned into ſtrong forts at a ſmall expenſe: witneſs the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its caſtles are ſtupendouſly large; and in ſome, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly diſcernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and ſome appear to be partly Britiſh and partly Roman. In Brecknockſhire are ſome rude ſculptures, upon a ſtone ſix feet high, called the Maiden-ſtone; but the remains of the Druidical inſtitutions, and places of worſhip, are chiefly diſcernible in the Iſle of Angleſey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who deſcribes it as being the chief ſeminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Cherphilly-caſtle in Glamorganſhire is ſaid to have been the largeſt in Great Britain, excepting Windſor; and the remains of it ſhow it to have been a moſt beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as great a curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

Among the natural curioſities of this country, are the following: At a ſmall village called Newton, in Glamorganſhire, is a remarkable ſpring nigh the ſea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the tide. In Merionethſhire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintſhire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The ſpring boils with vaſt impetuoſity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, ſupported by pillars, and the roof is moſt exquiſitely carved in ſtone. Over the ſpring is alſo a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous ſtate. King James II. paid a viſit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a preſent which was made him of the very ſhift in which his great grandmother, Mary Stuart, loſt her head. The ſpring is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt in the Britiſh do-

* The Iſle of Angleſey, which is the moſt weſtern county of North Wales, is ſurrounded on all ſides by the Iriſh Sea, except on the ſouth-eaſt, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow ſtrait, called Menau, which in ſome places may be paſſed on foot at low water. The iſland is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 74 pariſhes. It was the ancient ſeat of the Britiſh Druids.

minions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to throw out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or ſcarcely varies in the quantity of water either in dry or rainy ſeaſons; but in conſequence of the latter it aſſumes a wheyiſh tinge. The ſmall town adjoining to the well is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, acroſs the edge of which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rocks ſeem every minute ready to cruſh them to pieces; and the great precipice below, which hangs over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and (till very lately, when a wall was raiſed on the ſide of the road) full of danger, that one falſe ſtep was of diſmal conſequence. Snowdon hill has been found, by triangular meaſurement, to be 1240 yards in perpendicular height.

There are a great number of pleaſing proſpects and picturesque views in Wales: and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the weſtern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moſtly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milford haven, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late conſiderable ſums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. The making it the principal harbour in the kingdom would meet with great oppoſition in parliament from the numerous Corniſh and Weſt-country members, the benefit of whoſe eſtates muſt be greatly leſſened by the diſuſe of Plymouth and Portſmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England and Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII.; when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the Engliſh form; all laws, cuſtoms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Engliſh liberties and privileges, particularly that of ſending members to parliament, viz. a kight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the ſame reign, there were ordained four ſeveral circuits for the adminiſtration of juſtice in the ſaid ſhires, each of which was to include three ſhires; ſo that the chief juſtice of Cheſter has under his juriſdiction the three ſeveral ſhires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery. The ſhires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Angleſey, are under the juſtices of North Wales. Thoſe of Caermarthen, Pembrokeſhire, and Cardigan, have alſo their juſtices; as have likewiſe thoſe of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other juſtice-aſſiſtant was ordained to the former juſtices; ſo that now every one of the ſaid four circuits has two juſtices, viz. one chief-juſtice, and a ſecond juſtice aſſiſtant.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, the crown has a certain though ſmall property in the product of the ſilver and lead mines; but it is ſaid that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales, from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ from thoſe of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge

of oſtrich feathers, was occaſioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poitiers, and the motto is *Ich dien*, I ſerve. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar ſaint of the Welch; and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1ſt of March.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were ſovereign and independent, appears from the Engliſh hiſtory. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. Theſe people were never entirely ſubdued by the Romans, though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of caſtles, was bridled by garriſons. The Saxons, as has been already obſerved, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, but they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three ſons; and the names of theſe diviſions were, Dimetia, or South Wales; Poveſia, or Powis land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This diviſion gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to ſerve as a barrier to England. The Welſh made many brave attempts to maintain their liberties againſt the Norman kings of England. In 1237, the crown of England was firſt ſupplied with a pretext for the future conqueſt of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the perſecutions of his undutiful ſon Gryffyn, having put himſelf under the protection of Henry III. to whom he did homage.

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of Edward I. who reſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin, prince of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed an army at a prodigious expenſe, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and, taking poſſeſſion of the Iſle of Angleſey, drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to ſubmit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made ſeveral efforts under young Llewellin; but, at laſt, in 1282, he was killed in battle. He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman maſſacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that this cruelty was not ſufficient to complete his conqueſt, he ſent his queen, in the year 1284, to be delivered in Caernarvon caſtle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themſelves, might the more readily recogniſe his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II.; and from him the title of prince of Wales has always ſince deſcended to the eldeſt ſons of the Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England becomes now the ſame. It is proper, however, to obſerve, that the kings of England have always found it their intereſt to ſoothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldeſt ſons not only held their titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a preſident, was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought ſo neceſſary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was created princeſs of Wales.

# ISLE OF MAN.

THE Mona mentioned by Tacitus was not this iſland, but the Iſle of Angleſey. Some think it takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), becauſe, lying in St. George's Channel, it is almoſt at an equal diſtance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona ſeems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached iſland. Its length from north to ſouth is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the iſland is fifty-four degrees ſixteen minutes north. It is ſaid that on a clear day three Britannic kingdoms may be ſeen from this iſland. The air here is wholeſome, and the climate, only making an allowance for the ſituation, pretty much the ſame as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other reſpects. The hilly parts are barren, and the campaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulſe. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divide the iſland, both protects and fertiliſes the valleys, where there is good paſturage. The better ſort of inhabitants have good ſizeable horſes, and a ſmall kind, which is ſwift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coaſts abound with ſea fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit holes, are almoſt lumps of fat, and eſteemed very delicious. It is ſaid that this iſland abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, ſlate, and ſtone.

The Iſle of Man contains ſeventeen pariſhes, and four towns on the ſea coaſts. Caſtle-town is the metropolis of the iſland, and the ſeat of its government; Peele of late years begins to flouriſh; Douglas has the beſt market and beſt trade in the iſland, and the richeſt and moſt populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the ſea. It contains about 900 houſes, and is a neat pleaſant town, the buildings lofty, but the ſtreets narrow and cloſe. Ramſey has likewiſe a conſiderable commerce, on account of its ſpacious bay, in which ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds, excepting the north-eaſt. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may ſee how conveniently this iſland is ſituated for being the ſtorehouſe of ſmugglers, which it was till within theſe few years, to the inexpreſſible prejudice of his Majeſty's revenue; and this neceſſarily leads us to touch upon the hiſtory of the iſland.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the ſeas, who have been before mentioned, this iſland was their rendez-vous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in hiſtory; and though we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and know but few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages maſters of thoſe ſeas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a ſpirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſuperiority of Man, and obliged Owen or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It ſeems to have continued tributary to the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I.; and the kings of England, from that time, exerciſed the ſuperiority over the iſland; though we find it ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes, in the reign of Edward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland,

and beſtowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Saliſbury. His family honours and eſtate being forfeited, Henry IV. beſtowed Man, and the patronage of the biſhoprick, firſt upon the Northumberland family, and, that being forfeited, upon ſir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. Reaſons of ſtate rendered it neceſſary for the crown of Great Britain to purchaſe the cuſtoms of the iſland from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000l. being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the iſland, though the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the ſame rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants alſo retain many of their ancient conſtitutions and cuſtoms.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the church of England. The biſhop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminences of the other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh houſe of peers—his ſee never having been erected into an Engliſh barony. One of the moſt excellent prelates who ever adorned the epiſcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilſon, biſhop of Man, who preſided over the dioceſe upward of fifty-ſeven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently diſtinguiſhed for the piety and the exemplarineſs of his life, his benevolence and hoſpitality, and his unremitting attention to the happineſs of the people entruſted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, eſtabliſhed ſchools for the inſtruction of the children of the inhabitants of the iſland, tranſlated ſome of his devotional pieces into the Manks' language, to render them more generally uſeful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every pariſh in his dioceſe. Some of his notions reſpecting government and church diſcipline were not of the moſt liberal kind: but his failings were ſo few, and his virtues ſo numerous and conſpicuous, that he was a great bleſſing to the Iſle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had ſo much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation ſhould ravage the Iſle of Man.

The eccleſiaſtical government is well maintained in this iſland, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Erſe, or Iriſh, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Teſtament and the Common prayer book have been tranſlated into the Manks' language. The natives, who amount to about 30,000, are inoffenſive, charitable, and hoſpitable. The better ſort live in ſtone houſes, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities they may have occaſion for from other parts. Before the ſouth promontory of Man is a little iſland, called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amuſe an antiquary. They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions and monuments, of ancient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are ſometimes dug up, and ſeem to indicate the ſplendor of its ancient poſſeſſors.

# ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS iſland is ſituated oppoſite the coaſt of Hampſhire, from which it is ſeparated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to ſeven miles; it is conſidered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. Its greateſt length, extending from eaſt to weſt, meaſures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth, from north to ſouth, above thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly in the ſouthern parts: the ſoil is various; but ſo great is its fertility, that it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year than could be conſumed by the inhabitants in eight; and it is ſuppoſed that its preſent produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increaſe of population. A range of hills, which afford fine paſture for ſheep, extends from eaſt to weſt, through the middle of the iſland. The interior parts of the iſland, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and pictureſque proſpects, not only in the paſtoral but alſo in the great and romantic ſtyle. Of theſe beauties the gentlemen of the iſland have availed themſelves, as well in the choice of ſituations for their houſes, as in their other improvements. Domeſtic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ſhips and veſſels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furniſhing themſelves from this iſland.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, and the beauty and variety of the landſcapes of this iſland, that it has been called the garden of England; it has ſome very fine gentlemen's ſeats; and it is often viſited by parties of pleaſure on account of its delightful ſcenes.

The iſland is divided into thirty pariſhes; and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitans then amounted to eighteen thouſand and twenty-four, excluſive of the troops quartered there. Moſt of the farm-houſes are built with ſtone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport ſtands nearly in the centre of the iſland, of which it may be conſidered as the capital. The river Medina empties itſelf into the channel at Cowes harbour, diſtant about five miles, and, being navigable up to the quay, is very commodious for trade. The three principal ſtreets of Newport extend from eaſt to weſt, and are croſſed at right angles by three others, all which are ſpacious, clean, and well paved.

Cariſbrook caſtle, in the Iſle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a priſoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this caſtle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, died in it. There are ſeveral other forts in this iſland, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouſes were built in different parts of the coaſt of England.

The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluſter of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about thirty miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they were reckoned a part. By their ſituation between the Engliſh Channel and St. George's Channel, they have been the deſtruction of many ſhips and lives. Sir Cloudeſley Shovel, returning from a fruitleſs expedition againſt Toulon, was loſt here in October, 1707. St. Mary's is the largeſt of theſe iſlands, being about nine or ten miles in circumference, and containing as many houſes and inhabitants as all the reſt. The number of the latter is about 700; ſeveral of the other iſlands are well inhabited, and have large and ſecure harbours.

In the Engliſh Channel are four iſlands ſubject to England: theſe are Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coaſt of Normandy than to that of England, are within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Britany. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark is four leagues; and between that and Guernſey, ſeven leagues; and between the ſame and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans, and lies fartheſt within the bay, in forty-nine degrees ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, 18 miles weſt of Normandy, and 84 miles ſouth of Portland. The north ſide is inacceſſible through lofty cliffs; the ſouth is almoſt level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cider. The valleys are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and ſheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cider, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of ſtockings. The honey in Jerſey is remarkably fine; and the iſland is well ſupplied with fiſh and wild-fowl of almoſt every kind, ſome of both being peculiar to the iſland, and very delicious.

The iſland is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is ſo ſalubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was ſaid there was here no buſineſs for a phyſician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve pariſhes. The capital town of St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houſes, has a good harbour and caſtle, and makes a handſome appearance. The property of this iſland belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal intereſt, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the Britiſh dominions durſt recogniſe him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which moſt of them intermingle Engliſh words. Knit ſtockings and caps form their ſtaple commodity; but they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh with Newfoundland, and diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil adminiſtration reſts with a bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. As this iſland is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preſerves the old feudal forms, and particularly the aſſembly of ſtates, which is, as it were, a miniature of the Britiſh parliament, as ſettled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt; has only ten pariſhes, to which there are but eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guern-

Plate IX.

# IRELAND
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

Irish Miles
British Statute Miles

ATLANTIC OCEAN

ULSTER
CONNAUGHT
LEINSTER
MUNSTER

DONEGAL
LONDONDERRY
ANTRIM
TYRONE
FERMANAGH
ARMAGH
MONAGHAN
CAVAN
LOUTH
LEITRIM
SLIGO
MAYO
ROSCOMMON
LONG FORD
EAST MEATH
WEST MEATH
GALWAY
KINGS COUNTY
QUEENS CO.
CLARE
TIPPERARY
LIMERICK
KILKENNY
KILDARE
DUBLIN
WICKLOW
CARLOW
WEXFORD
WATERFORD
KERRY
CORK

SCOTLAND
IRISH SEA
ISLE of MAN
ANGLESEA
WALES
BRISTOL CHANNEL
ST GEORGES CHANNEL
Cardigan Bay

Enistrahull
Giants Causeway
Ballin I.
Mull of Cantire
Islay
Fair Head
Coleraph H.
Tory I.
North Cape
Sharp Haven
Lough Swilly
Green Cas.
Red Cas.
Rathlyn Castle
Castlendon Bay
Glenarm
Ballycastle
Ballimoney
Glenarm Bay
Maidens
Girvan
Rathlin
Newton Limavady
Raphoe
Donegal
North Leg Arran
Templecrone
Gibarra R.
Lifford
Londonderry
Connor
Carrickfergus
Antrim
Larne
Port Patrick
Wigtown
Wigtown Bay
Glenluce Bay
Mull of Galloway
Belfast
Newtown
Lough Neagh
Portaferry
Strangford Bay
Ayre Pt
Douglas
Peel
Calf of Man
Lang Nes
Derry R.
Omagh
Mountjoy
Tyrone
Dungannon
Hillsboro
Dromore
Down
Downpatrick
Armagh
Clogher
Enniskillen
Castle Shan
Monaghan
Carlingford
Carlingford Bay
Dundalk
Dundalk Bay
Drogheda
Duleek
Kells
Navan
Trim
Ratoath
Swords
Dublin
Howth Head
Dublin Harb:
St Patricks I.
Lambay I.
Garren Pt
Holy Head
Bray
Braychipult Pt
Wicklow
Wicklow Hd
North Ground
Middle Ground
South Ground
Arklow
Gorey
Ferns
Wexford
Wexford Haven
New Ground
Hollen
Carnsore Point
Waterford
Tramore B.
Hook Tower
Ballycotton Bay
Cork
Cork Harbour
Kinsale
Old Head
Youghall
Youghall Bay
Dungarvan
Dungarvan Bay
Ram Hd
Kilmore
Cashel
Kilkenny
Thurles
Limerick
Shannon River
Tarbert
Kilrush
Loop Hd
Dingle Bay
Valentia I
Skelig Rocks
Bantry
Dunmanway
Clonakilty
Kinsale
Cape Clear
Mizen Hd
Bear Island
Dunmanus Bay
Kenmare River
Ballinskelligs Bay
Dursey Isle & Cape
Slyne Hd
Inishbofin
Inishturk
Clare I.
Achill Hd
Black Hd
Saddle Hd
Erris Hd
Broad Haven
Killala
Sligo
Ballysadare Bay
Killybegs
Donegal Bay
Teelin
Malin Bay
Mill Haven
Gillaugh Crane
Derrine Hd
The Mallet
Ennis Boyne
Dunmore Head
Slime Hd
Round Stone Bay
Galway
Galway Bay
Inner Castle
North Passage
South Passage
Killeny
Ballyvaughan
Kilbeacanty
Gort
Kinvarra
Tuam
Athenry
Ardrim
Loughrea
Portumna
Birr
Roscrea
Nenagh
Ballinahinch
Mountmellick
Maryborough
Athy
Timahoe
Castledermot
Carlow
Leighlin Bridge
Naas
Clane
Kilcullen
Ballymore Eustace
Blessington
Rathcoole
Lucan
Celbridge
Maynooth
Ratoath
Ashbourne
Trim
Kells
Navan
Slane
Drogheda
Dunleer
Dundalk
Carlingford
Newry
Castle Blaney
Monaghan
Clones
Cavan
Belturbet
Ballyconnell
Enniskillen
Lough Erne
Lough Gill
Sligo
Ballina
Killala
Broad Haven
Belmullet
Achill
Clew Bay
Westport
Newport
Castlebar
Ballinrobe
Cong
Lough Mask
Lough Corrib
Oughterard
Galway
Aran Islands
Inishmore
Inishmaan
Inishere
Kilkee
Kilrush
Ennis
Corofin
Ennistymon
Lahinch
Liscannor Bay
Loop Head
Kilkee Bay
Tarbert
Listowel
Tralee
Dingle
Castlemaine Harbour
Killorglin
Killarney
Lough Leane
Mallow
Fermoy
Lismore
Dungarvan
Youghall
Middleton
Cloyne
Ballycotton
Kinsale
Bandon
Clonakilty
Skibbereen
Baltimore
Roscarbery
Courtmacsherry
Kinsale Harbour
Old Head
Waterford
Passage
Tramore
Tramore Bay
Hook Tower
Duncannon
Duncannon Bay
Waterford Harbour
Rosslare
Rosslare Bay
Wexford
Enniscorthy
Gorey
Arklow
Wicklow
Bray
Howth Head
Dublin Harbour
Lambay I.
Skerries
Rush
Malahide
Swords
Balbriggan
Drogheda
Dunleer
Dundalk
Carlingford
Newry
Strangford Bay
Portaferry
Donaghadee
Belfast
Carrickfergus
Larne
Glenarm
Ballycastle
Rathlin I.
Fair Head
Mull of Cantire
Islay
Port Patrick
Wigtown
Wigtown Bay
Glenluce Bay
Mull of Galloway
Isle of Man
Peel
Douglas
Calf of Man
Langness
Ramsey
Laxey
Castletown
Port Erin
Port St Mary
Strumble Hd
Cardigan
St Davids Hd
St Davids
St Brides Bay
Milford Haven
Worms Hd
St Gowens Hd
Lundy I.
Pembroke
Tenby
Caldy I.
Barry I.
Swansea
Mumbles Hd
Worms Head
Carmarthen Bay
Cardigan Bay
Aberystwith
Aberaeron
New Quay
Cardigan
Fishguard
Newport
Abergwaun
Strumble Hd
Ramsey I.
Skomer I.
Grassholm I.
Caldy I.
Barry I.
Flat Holm
Steep Holm
Kenfig
Porthcawl
Nash Point
Lavernock Point
Penarth
Cardiff
Newport
Chepstow
Monmouth
Usk
Abergavenny
Brecon
Hay
Builth
Rhayader
Llandovery
Llandeilo
Carmarthen
Llanelly
Swansea
Neath
Aberavon
Port Talbot
Bridgend
Cowbridge
Llantrissant
Pontypridd
Merthyr Tydvil
Abergavenny
Crickhowell
Tredegar
Abergavenny
Pontypool
Caerleon
Newport
Chepstow
Monmouth
Ross
Hereford
Leominster
Ludlow
Bewdley
Worcester
Tewkesbury
Gloucester
Berkeley
Thornbury
Bristol
Clifton
Bath
Keynsham
Wells
Axbridge
Bridgewater
Taunton
Minehead
Porlock
Lynmouth
Ilfracombe
Barnstaple
Bideford
Hartland Point
Clovelly
Bude
Boscastle
Tintagel
Padstow
Newquay
St Ives
Penzance
Mount's Bay
Lizard Point
Falmouth
Truro
Helston
Redruth
Camborne
Hayle
St Ives
Land's End
Scilly Islands
St Mary's
Tresco
Bryher
Sampson
St Agnes
Annet
Round Island
Wolf Rock
Longitude West from London.
NYMPH BANK
Discovered in 1753 by
Capt: Doyle.

ſey, forming each a ſeparate pariſh with its appropriate miniſter. Though this is naturally a finer iſland than that of Jerſey, yet it is far leſs valuable; becauſe it is not ſo well cultivated, nor is it ſo populous. It abounds in cider. The inhabitants ſpeak French. Want of fuel is the greateſt inconveniency that both iſlands labour under. It is divided into ten pariſhes, with only eight churches. The convention of the ſtates conſiſts of a governor, coroners, jurats, clergy, and conſtables. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade to Newfoundland and the Mediterranean. The ſtaple manufacture is knit-ſtockings. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Caſtle, and the other Caſtle-Cornet. Guernſey is likewiſe part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs, and is by much the neareſt of all theſe iſlands to Normandy, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips. To the weſt lie a range of rocks extending near three leagues, called the Caſkets, among which are ſeveral very dangerous whirlpools or eddies. The ſons of king Henry I. were caſt away and drowned here, paſſing to Normandy: here, likewiſe, the Victory man of war, commanded by admiral Balchen, was loſt. This iſland is healthy, and the ſoil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a ſmall iſland depending upon Guernſey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniences of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three laſt-mentioned iſlands, together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four iſlands is that of the church of England.

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# IRELAND.

## Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

THE iſland of Ireland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between 6 and 10 degrees of weſt longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longeſt day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longeſt day is 17½ hours.

The extent or ſuperficial content of this kingdom is, from the neareſt computation and ſurvey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north, to Miſſenhead ſouth; and from the eaſt part of Down, to the weſt part of Mayo, its greateſt breadth 160 miles; and to contain 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of Engliſh ſtatute meaſure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 150 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles, with 127 inhabitants to each. From the eaſt part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 45 miles, but the paſſage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than twenty miles, and the paſſage from Dublin to Holyhead in North Wales, about 52 miles.

Names and divisions, ancient and modern. Many conjectures have been formed as to the Latin (Hibernia), the Iriſh (Erin), as well as the Engliſh name of this iſland. It probably takes its riſe from a Phœnician or Gaelic term, ſignifying the fartheſt habitation weſtward.

It is rather extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the diviſions of Ireland; ſome dividing it into five circuits, and ſome into four provinces, thoſe of Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaught, and Munſter. The laſt diviſion is the moſt common, and likewiſe the moſt ancient.

| | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Leinſter, 12 counties | Dublin | Dublin |
| | Louth | Drogheda |
| | Wicklow | Wicklow |
| | Wexford | Wexford |
| | Longford | Longford |
| | Eaſt Meath | Trim |
| | Weſt Meath | Mullingar |
| | King's County | Philipſtown |
| | Queen's County | Maryborough |
| | Kilkenny | Kilkenny |
| | Kildare | Naas and Athy |
| | Carlow | Carlow. |
| Ulſter, 9 counties | Down | Down Patrick |
| | Armagh | Armagh |
| | Monaghan | Monaghan |
| | Cavan | Cavan |
| | Antrim | Carrickfergus |
| | Londonderry | Derry |
| | Tyrone | Omagh |
| | Fermanagh | Enniſkillen |
| | Donegall | Lifford. |
| Connaught, 5 counties | Leitrim | Carrick on Shannon |
| | Roſcommon | Roſcommon |
| | Mayo | Ballinrobe and Caſtlebar |
| | Sligo | Sligo |
| | Galway | Galway. |
| Munſter, 6 counties | Clare | Ennis |
| | Cork | Cork |
| | Kerry | Tralee |
| | Limerick | Limerick |
| | Tipperary | Clonmel |
| | Waterford | Waterford. |

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, excepting that it is more moiſt, the ſeaſons in general being much wetter. From the reports of various regiſters, it appears that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the ſame years in England. But without the evidence of regiſters, it is certain that moiſture (even without rain) is not only more characteriſtic of the climate of this iſland than that of England, but is alſo one of the worſt and moſt inconvenient circumſtances. This is accounted for by obſerving, that, "the weſterly winds, ſo favourable to other regions, and ſo benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hartful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on this ſide of America to break their force, and proving in general too powerful for the counteraction of the ſhifting winds from the eaſtern and African continents, they waft hither the vapours of an immenſe ocean. By this cauſe, the ſky in Ireland is much obſcured; and, from the nature of reſt and condenſation, theſe vapours deſcend in ſuch conſtant rains, as threaten deſtruction to

the fruits of the earth in ſome ſeaſons. This unavoidable evil from natural cauſes is aggravated by the increaſe of it from others, which are either moral or political. The hand of induſtry has been long idle in a country where almoſt every advantage muſt be obtained from its labour, and where diſcouragements on the labourer muſt neceſſarily produce a ſtate of languor. Ever ſince the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of ſo many ages ſubſiding on the lower grounds, have converted moſt of the extenſive plains into moſſy moraſſes, and near a tenth part of this beautiful iſle is become a repoſitory for ſtagnated waters, which, in the courſe of evaporation, impregnate the air with noxious exhalations*." But, in many reſpects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England—the ſummers being cooler, and the winters leſs ſevere. The piercing froſts, the deep ſnows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are ſo frequently obſerved in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.

The dampneſs above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of graſs, has been urged as an argument why the inhabitants ſhould confine their attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total deſertion of tillage, and conſequent injury to the growth of population; but the ſoil is ſo infinitely various, as to be capable of almoſt every ſpecies of cultivation ſuitable to ſuch latitude, with a fertility equal to its variety. This is ſo conſpicuous, that it has been obſerved by a reſpectable Engliſh traveller, that "natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two kingdoms, is certainly in favour of Ireland; of this there can ſcarcely be a doubt entertained, when it is conſidered that ſome of the more beautiful, and even beſt cultivated counties in England, owe almoſt every thing to the capital art and induſtry of its inhabitants."

We ſhall conclude this article with the further ſentiments of the ſame author (Mr. Young), whoſe knowledge of the ſubject, acquaintance with the kingdom, and candour, are unimpeachable.

"The circumſtance which ſtrikes me as the greateſt ſingularity of Ireland is the rockineſs of the ſoil, which ſhould ſeem at firſt ſight againſt that degree of fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is ſo general, that I have good reaſon to believe the whole iſland is one vaſt rock of different ſtrata and kinds riſing out of the ſea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being ſunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the ſurface in every part of the kingdom; the flatteſt and moſt fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almoſt as much as the more barren ones. May we not recogniſe in this the hand of bounteous Providence, which has given, perhaps, the moſt ſtony ſoil in Europe to the moiſteſt climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays in England (a ſoil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much ſtone), as falls upon the rocks of her ſiſter iſland, thoſe lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; thoſe of lime-ſtone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the ſofteſt and moſt beautiful turf imaginable.

"The rockineſs of the ſoil in Ireland is ſo univerſal, that it predominates in every ſort. One cannot uſe with propriety the terms clay, loam, ſand, &c. it muſt be a ſtony clay, a ſtony loam, a gravelly ſand. Clay, eſpecially the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland; but it is for want of proper diſcrimination. I have once or twice ſeen almoſt a pure clay upon the ſurface; but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is uſually found in a thin ſtratum, under the ſurface mould, and

* O'Connor's Diſſertations.

over a rock; harſh, tenacious, ſtony, ſtrong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite different from Engliſh clays.

"Friable ſandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the beſt ſoils in the kingdom for tillage and ſheep. Tipperary and Roſcommon abound particularly in them. The moſt fertile of all are the bullock paſtures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcaſſes. Theſe are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

"Sand, which is ſo common in England, and yet more common through France, Germany, and Poland, quite from Gibraltar to Peterſburg, is no where met with in Ireland, except in narrow ſlips of hillocks, upon the ſea-coaſt. Nor did I ever meet with or hear of a chalky ſoil.

"Beſides the great fertility of the ſoil, there are other circumſtances, which come within my ſphere to mention. Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkable that by much the fineſt parts of the kingdom are on the banks of theſe rivers. Witneſs the Suir, Blackwater, and Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow, and part of the Shannon; they waſh a ſcenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockineſs of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obſtructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

"The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that intereſting variety, which a flat country can never abound with; and, at the ſame time, they are not in ſuch number as to confer the character of poverty which uſually attends them. I was either upon or very near the moſt conſiderable in the kingdom, Mangerton, and the Reeks in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; thoſe of Mourne in Down; Crow-Patrick and Nephin, in Mayo; theſe are the principal in Ireland; and they are of a character in height and ſublimity, which ſhould render them the object of every traveller's attention. The ſoil, though rocky, is extremely fertile, perhaps beyond that of England itſelf, when properly cultivated. Paſturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but of late tillage was too much diſcountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom, abundance of hemp and flax are raiſed, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vaſt numbers of black cattle and ſheep, and the Iriſh wool is excellent. The prodigious ſupplies of butter and ſalt proviſions (fiſh excepted) ſhipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the ſtrongeſt proofs of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil."

The bogs of Ireland are very extenſive: that of Allen extends 80 miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There are others alſo which are very extenſive, and ſmaller ones ſcattered over the whole kingdom; but it has been obſerved, that theſe are not in general more than are wanted for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES. The numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, ſpacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which Ireland abounds, greatly enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon iſſues from Lough-Allen, in the county of Leitrim, ſerves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a courſe of 150 miles, forming in its progreſs many beautiful lakes, falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks ſpreading quite acroſs it, ſouth of Killaloe; but this might be remedied by a ſhort

canal, at the expenſe of 10 or 12,000l.; and communication might alſo be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Coleraine; the Boyne falls into St. George's Channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a ſpacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the ſouth part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their ſtreams below Roſs, fall into the Channel at Waterford haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every-where indent the coaſt, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country beyond any country in Europe beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinſale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannonmouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vaſt number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fiſh; and the great Lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Some of the Iriſh lakes afford the moſt beautiful and romantic proſpects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a ſmall town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely ſurrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immenſe declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with ever-greens, from near their tops to the lakes themſelves; among which are a number of rivulets tumbling over the precipices, ſome from heights of little leſs than 300 feet. On the top of one of the ſurrounding mountains is a ſmall round lake, about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch-Bowl. From the ſurface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards; and when viewed from the circular top, it has a moſt aſtoniſhing appearance. The depth of it is vaſtly great, but not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The diſcharge of the ſuperfluous waters of this bowl, through a chaſm into the middle lake, forms one of the fineſt caſcades in the world, viſible for 150 yards. The echoes among the hills ſurrounding the ſouthern parts of the lake, which is moſtly incloſed, are equally delightful and aſtoniſhing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmore, has placed ſome cannon in the moſt proper places, for the amuſement of travellers; and the diſcharge of theſe pieces is tremendous, reſembling moſt the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which ſeems to travel the ſurrounding ſcenery, and die away among the diſtant mountains. Here alſo muſical inſtruments, eſpecially the horn and trumpet, afford the moſt delightful entertainment, and raiſe a concert ſuperior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vaſt and craggy heights that ſurround the lake, is one ſtupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a moſt horrid precipice, called the *eagle's neſt*, from the number of thoſe birds which have their neſts in that place.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom; one in particular, reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic Ocean. In ſurveying the grounds for this canal, it was found neceſſary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which, from the ſpungy nature of the ſoil became

a work of incredible labour and expenſe, in ſtrengthening the ſides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

MOUNTAINS.] The Iriſh language has been more happy in diſtinguiſhing the ſize of mountains than perhaps any other. A *knock* ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; *ſlieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending and continued in ſeveral ridges; a *bienn*, or binn, ſignifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. The two laſt are often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſame range. Ireland, however, when compared with ſome other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among ſome of the higheſt in the kingdom; of which Slieu Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1050 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, which contain beds of minerals, coals, ſtone, ſlate, and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts in Ireland lie in Leinſter, the King's and Queen's counties, and thoſe of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulſter there are great foreſts, as in the county of Donegall, and in the north part of Tyrone; alſo in the county of Fermanagh, along Lough Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is ſome good timber; and the oak is eſteemed as good as any of the Engliſh growth, and as fit for ſhip-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late diſcoveries. Several contain ſilver and lead; and it is ſaid that thirty pounds of their lead-ore produce a pound of ſilver; but the richeſt ſilver mine is at Wicklow; where ſome gold-ore has likewiſe been diſcovered, but it does not ſeem likely to prove very productive. A copper and lead mine have been diſcovered at Tipperary; as likewiſe iron-ore, and excellent free-ſtone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a ſtream of water, very much impregnated with copper, which yields great quantities of that metal. The method taken to obtain it, is by putting broad plates of iron into a place where the water falls from ſome height, ſo that they may receive the whole power of the falling water. The acid, which holds the copper in ſolution, lets it fall in order to diſſolve the iron, to which it has a ſtronger affinity. On the iron the other metal appears in its proper form, incruſting the plate, and gradually penetrating it; ſo that at laſt a plate of copper is left inſtead of iron. Hence, it is ſaid by the vulgar, that this water has a power of changing iron into copper; but this is a miſtake; for the iron is all diſſolved and carried down the ſtream by the acid, which formerly held the copper in ſolution; while the latter, deprived of its ſolvent, which then rendered it inviſible, only makes its appearance when the water lets it fall. Some of the Iriſh marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red ſtriped with white. Quarries of fine ſlate are found in moſt of the counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little ſmoke; and it contains a cryſtalline ſtream which has no ſediment. Thoſe peculiarities, with the ſerenity of the air in that place, have given riſe to the well-known proverb, "that Kilkenny contains fire without ſmoke, water without mud, and air without fog."

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the ſame as thoſe of England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moſs, which are of vaſt ſervice for firing, where wood and coals are ſcarce. A few wolves

were formerly found in Ireland; but they have long ſince been exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than maſtiffs, ſhaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as ſpaniels. What has been already obſerved about the Iriſh exportation of ſalt proviſions ſufficiently evinces the prodigious numbers of hogs and ſheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are ſaid to be more plentiful there than in England. The fiſh that are caught upon the coaſts of Ireland are likewiſe in greater plenty than on thoſe of England, and ſome of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

At the commencement of the preſent century, the number of inhabitants in Ireland was thought to be about two millions; whereas, in 1672, there were, according to ſir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000. But from the accounts laid before the houſe of commons in 1786, (as returned by the hearth-money collectors), the number of houſes in Ireland amounted to 474,234. If we add to this the probable increaſe ſince, and allow for the numbers intentionally or unavoidably overlooked in ſuch returns, we may reaſonably conclude that the preſent actual amount is 500,000.

We are next to conſider what average number of perſons we ſhould allow to each houſe. In the peaſants' cottages in Ireland (perhaps the moſt populous in the world), Mr. Young in ſome parts found the average 6 and 6 ½; others have found it in different places to be 7; and Dr. Hamilton, in his account of the iſland of Raghery, enumerates the houſes, and diſcovered the average therein to be 8. In the cities and principal towns, the houſes, particularly in the manufacturing parts, generally contain ſeveral families; and from different accounts, the numbers in ſuch are from 10 up ſo high as 70 *.

From theſe *data*, then, it will not perhaps be erroneous, if we fix the average for the whole iſland at 8 perſons to each houſe; which, multiplied by the number of houſes, makes the population of Ireland amount to four millions.

As to the manners of the ancient Iriſh, Dr. Leland obſerves, that if we make our inquiries on this ſubject in Engliſh writers, we find their repreſentations odious and diſguſting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the moſt animated encomiums of their great anceſtors. The one can ſcarcely allow them any virtue: the other, in their enthuſiaſtic ardour, can ſcarcely diſcover the leaſt imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The hiſtorian of England ſometimes regards them as the moſt deteſtable and contemptible of the human race. The antiquary of Ireland raiſes them to an illuſtrious eminence above all other European countries. Yet when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we find them, even in their moſt brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civiliſation; a ſtate which exhibits the moſt ſtriking inſtances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With reſpect to the preſent deſcendents of the old Iriſh, or, as they are termed by the proteſtants, the *mere Iriſh*, they are generally repreſented as an ignorant, unciviliſed, and blundering ſort of people. Impatient of abuſe and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and patient of hardſhip. Though in theſe reſpects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neigh-

* Dr. Tiſdal enumerated the inhabitants of two pariſhes in Dublin, in 1731, and averaged the number in each houſe at 12½. The numbers varied from 10 to 70. Phil. Surv. of South of Ireland.

bours, yet their barbarifms are more eafy to be accounted for, from accidental than natural cauſes. By far the greater number of them are papiſts; and it is the intereſt of their prieſts, who govern them with abſolute ſway, to keep them in the moſt profound ignorance. They have alſo laboured under many diſcouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the ſervice of foreign princes, they have been diſtinguiſhed for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their ſurnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon. Formerly the *O* was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves on the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy ſtrain; though ſome of their lateſt airs are lively, and, when ſung by an Iriſhman, are extremely diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſpoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this cuſtom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their cuſtom of placing a dead corpſe before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of paſſengers, is practiſed even in the ſkirts of Dublin, though one would wiſh to ſee it aboliſhed. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to every ſtranger. But, as we have already obſerved, theſe cuſtoms are chiefly confined to the more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught—the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of law and government of any in Ireland, while their tyrannical landlords or leaſeholders ſqueeze the poor without mercy. The common Iriſh, in their manner of living, ſeem to reſemble the ancient Britons, as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve the double purpoſes of accommodating the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bred, potatoes, eggs, milk, and ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food; for, however plentifully the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, theſe poor natives ſeldom taſte butchers' meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robuſt, and hearty, ſcarcely know the uſe of clothes, and are not aſhamed to appear naked in the roads, and gaze upon ſtrangers.

In this idle and deplorable ſtate, many thouſands have been loſt to the community, and to themſelves, who, if they had but an equal chance with their neighbours, of being inſtructed in the real principles of Chriſtianity, and being inured and encouraged to induſtry and labour, would have added conſiderable ſtrength to government.

The deſcendents of the Engliſh and Scots, ſince the conqueſt of Ireland by Henry II. though not the moſt numerous, form the wealthieſt part of the nation. Of theſe are moſt of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eaſtern and northern coaſts, where moſt of the trade of Ireland is carried on, eſpecially Belfaſt, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulſter, which, though the pooreſt ſoil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, by far the beſt cultivated and moſt flouriſhing part of the kingdom. Here a colony

of Scots in the reign of James I. and other preſbyterians who fled from perſecution in that country in the ſucceeding reigns, planted themſelves, and eſtabliſhed that great ſtaple of Iriſh wealth, the linen manufacture, which they have ſince carried on and brought to the utmoſt perfection. From this ſhort review, it appears, that the preſent inhabitants are compoſed of three diſtinct claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, poor, ignorant, and depreſſed, who inhabit, or rather exiſt upon, the interior and weſtern parts; the deſcendents of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coaſt facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Chriſtianity; thirdly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are ſo zealouſly attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require ſome ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are ſo thoroughly conſolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better ſort of the Iriſh nation, in general differ little in language, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſpitality is well known; but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline of Ireland is the ſame with that of England. Among the bulk of the people in the moſt uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the moſt abſurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind ſubmiſſion of the latter to their clergy does not prevent proteſtantiſm from making a very rapid progreſs in the towns and communities. How far it may be the intereſt of England, that ſome kind of balance between the two religions ſhould be kept up, we ſhall not here inquire.

Ireland contains at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly preſbyterians, baptiſts, quakers, and methodiſts, who are all of them connived at or tolerated. Great efforts have been made, ever ſince the days of James I. in erecting free-ſchools for civiliſing and converting the Iriſh papiſts to proteſtantiſm. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh proteſtant working ſchools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have been many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh.

Archbiſhopricks and biſhopricks.] The archbiſhopricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam.

The biſhopricks are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

Language.] The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſt. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo altered as to render the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The uſage of the Iriſh language occaſions among the common people, who ſpeak both that and the Engliſh, a diſagreeable tone in ſpeaking, which diffuſes itſelf among the vulgar in general, and even among the better ſort who do not underſtand Iriſh. It is probable, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Learning ſeems to have been cultivated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr. O'Halloran ſays, that the Iriſh "appear to have been, from the moſt remote antiquity, a poliſhed people, and that with propriety they may be called the fathers of letters." We are even told that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phœnician, who is repreſented as the great anceſtor of the Iriſh nation. But certainly no literary monuments have yet been diſcovered in Ireland earlier than the introduction of Chriſtianity into this country; and the evidence of any tranſaction, previous to this period, reſts entirely on fabulous tradition, or, at leaſt, very doubtful authority.

It is ſaid, that when St. Patrick * landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Chriſtian preachers there, whoſe votaries were pious and obedient. Camden obſerves, that "the Iriſh ſcholars of St. Patrick profited ſo notably in Chriſtianity, that, in the ſucceeding age, Ireland was termed *Sanctorum Patria*. Their monks ſo greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they ſent whole flocks of moſt learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the firſt founders of Lieuxeu-abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy: of Wirtzburg, in Franconia; St. Gall, in Switzerland; and of Malmſbury, Lindisfarran, and many other monaſteries, in Britain." We have alſo the teſtimony of venerable Bede, that, about the middle of the ſeventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland, either for inſtruction, or for an opportunity of living in monaſteries of ſtricter diſcipline; and that the Scots (as he ſtyles the Iriſh) maintained them, taught them, and furniſhed them with books, without fee or reward: "a moſt honourable teſtimony," ſays lord Lyttleton, "not only to the learning, but likewiſe to the hoſpitality and bounty of that nation." Dr. Leland remarks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired iſland, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confuſion, gave peculiar luſtre to this ſeat of learning: nor is it improbable or ſurpriſing, that ſeven thouſand ſtudents ſtudied at Armagh, agreeable to the accounts of Iriſh writers, though the ſeminary of Armagh was but one of the many colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Iriſh have alſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the republic of letters. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour to literature itſelf. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire. The ſprightlineſs of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of diſtinguiſhed genius whom Ireland has produced, may alſo be particularly mentioned ſir Richard Steele, biſhop Berkeley, Parnel, Sterne, Goldſmith, and the late celebrated Mr. Burke.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one univerſity, which is denominated Trinity-college. It conſiſts of two ſquares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three ſides of one of the ſquares are of brick, and the fourth is a very ſuperb library; but being built of bad ſtone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The inſide is beautiful and commodious, and embelliſhed with the buſts of ſeveral ancient and modern worthies. A great part of the books on one ſide were collected by archbiſhop Uſher, who was one of the original members of this body, and the moſt learned man it ever produced. The

* It has been affirmed, that St Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr. O'Halloran denies this, and ſays, that "it appears from the moſt authentic records, that Patrick was from Wales."

new ſquare, three ſides of which have been built within about twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament-ſquare, is of hewn ſtone; and the front of it, next the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilaſters, feſtoons, &c. The provoſt's houſe has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland-ſtone. The chapel is a very mean ſtructure, as is alſo the old hall, wherein college exerciſes are performed; but the new hall, in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room. In their muſeum, is a ſet of figures in wax, repreſenting females in every ſtate of pregnancy. They are done upon real ſkeletons, and are the labours of almoſt the whole life of a French artiſt.

This ſeminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation conſiſted only of a provoſt, three fellows, and three ſcholars; which has from time to time been augmented to twenty-two fellows, ſeventy ſcholars, and thirty ſizers. However, the whole number of ſtudents is at preſent about four hundred, who are of three claſſes—fellow-commoners, penſioners, and ſizers or ſervitors. Of the fellows, ſeveral are called ſeniors; and the annual income of each of theſe is about ſeven hundred pounds. The provoſtſhip is ſuppoſed to be worth three thouſand pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, maſters, and doctors, in all the arts or faculties. The viſitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The wolf dogs of Ireland have already been mentioned. The Iriſh goſhawks and gerfalcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty. The mooſe-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this iſland, their horns being ſometimes dug up of ſo great a ſize, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giants' Cauſeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus deſcribed by Dr. Pococke, late biſhop of Oſſory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He ſays, "that he meaſured the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but he was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is, like that, loſt in the water.

"The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars, all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about one foot in thickneſs; and, what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily; and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

"But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurpriſing. From the bottom,

which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement, about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum of five inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum, ten feet thick, divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles.

The cavities, the romantic proſpects, cataracts, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities; and ſeveral pamphlets have been employed in deſcribing them. As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or ſtone towers, found upon the coaſts, and ſuppoſed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incurſions, who made uſe of them as ſpy-towers or barbicans, light-houſes or beacons.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in magnitude and the number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions; much about the ſize of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin and Marſeilles, and is ſuppoſed to contain about 156,000 inhabitants. It is ſituated 270 miles north-weſt of London, and near ſixty miles weſt from Holyhead in North Wales, the uſual ſtation of the paſſage-veſſels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin ſtands about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in, through the whole length of the city, on both ſides, which form ſpacious and noble quays, where veſſels below the firſt bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and warehouſes. A ſtranger, upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about ſeven miles broad, and in ſtormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably ſurpriſed with the beautiful proſpect on each ſide, and the diſtant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low ſituation, makes no great appearance. The increaſe of Dublin within theſe laſt twenty years is incredible, and it is generally ſuppoſed that 7000 houſes have been added to the city and ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne. The number of houſes in the year 1777, was 17,151, and are now eſtimated at not leſs that 22,000. This city, in its appearance, bears a near reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick; the old ſtreets are narrow and mean, but the new ſtreets are as elegant as thoſe of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville-ſtreet, which is ſometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel-walk runs through the whole at an equal diſtance from the ſides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ſea veſſels as far as the cuſtom-houſe, or centre of the city, is but ſmall, when compared with the Thames at London. Over it are two handſome bridges, lately built, of ſtone, in imitation of that at Weſtminſter, and there are three others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, towards the cuſtom-houſe, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purpoſes; but of late a new ſtreet has been opened, leading from Eſſex bridge to the caſtle, where the lord lieutenant reſides. A new exchange has been lately erected, an elegant ſtructure of white ſtone, richly

embelliſhed with ſemi columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle and city guards are relieved daily. They are ſaid to be the largeſt and completeſt building of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot and 1000 horſe.

The linen-hall was erected at the public expenſe, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantage, by preventing many frauds which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stephen's Green is a moſt extenſive ſquare, round which is a gravel-walk of near a mile. Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock, and in fine weather make a very gay appearance. Many of the houſes round the green are very ſtately; but a want of uniformity is obſervable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another ſpacious ſquare near Stephen's-Green, now laid out and partly built. The houſes being loſty, uniform, and carried on with ſtone as far as the firſt floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath. The front of Trinity-college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland-ſtone in the fineſt taſte.

The parliament houſe was begun in 1729, and finiſhed in 1739, at the expenſe of 40,000l. This ſuperb pile was in general of the Ionic order, and was juſtly accounted one of the foremoſt architectural beauties. The portico in particular was, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts had alſo many beauties, and the manner in which the building was lighted has been much admired. This ſuperb building, on the 27th of February, 1792, was obſerved to be in flames, about five o'clock in the afternoon, when the houſe of lords, as well as the commons, was ſitting, and in full debate. When the alarm was given, one of the members made his way to the roof, and looking down into the houſe from one of the ventilators, confirmed the apprehenſions of thoſe within, by ſaying the dome was ſurrounded by fire, and would tumble into the houſe in five minutes. The volume of fire, by which the dome was ſurrounded, ſoon made apertures on all ſides, by melting the copper from the wood-work, and thus exhibiting the cavity of the dome filled with flames like a large furnace, which at about half paſt ſix tumbled into the houſe with one great craſh. The valuable library, and all the papers of importance, were ſaved. It has ſince been rebuilt, and reſtored to its former elegance and beauty.

But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings that this age can boaſt of, is the building of a ſtone wall about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, and of a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the ſame as in London. Every third year, the lord-mayor, and the twenty-four

companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchiſes. Upon this occaſion the citizens vie with each other in ſhow and oſtentation, which is ſometimes productive of diſagreeable conſequences to many of their families. In Dublin there are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London. In this city are eighteen pariſh-churches, eight chapels, three churches for French, and one for Dutch proteſtants, ſeven preſbyterian meeting-houſes, two for methodiſts, two for quakers, and ſixteen Roman catholic chapels. A royal hoſpital, like that at Chelſea, for invalids; a lying-in hoſpital, with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte; an hoſpital for lunatics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himſelf died a lunatic; and ſundry other hoſpitals for patients of every deſcription. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding, in a more elegant manner. And, indeed, whatever way a ſtranger turns himſelf in this city, he will perceive a ſpirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will be convinced that works of ornament and public utility are no-where more encouraged than in Ireland, chiefly through the munificence of parliament.

It has, however, been matter of ſurpriſe, that, with all this ſpirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. In the capital, which may be claſſed among the ſecond order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn which deſerves that name. This may, in ſome meaſure, be accounted for, by the long and ſometimes dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from viſiting that iſland; but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike-roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and ſafe, the roads of Ireland may, by this means, become more frequented, eſpecially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though, in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the moſt luxuriant and rich, he is ſometimes cloyed with a ſameneſs that runs through the whole; but in North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whoſe tops look down upon the clouds, the extenſive lakes, enriched with buſhy iſlands, the cavities, glens, and cataracts, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination of every admirer of nature, however rough and unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deſervedly reckoned the ſecond city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles ſouth-weſt of Dublin, and contains above 8500 houſes. Its haven is deep, and well ſheltered from all winds; but ſmall veſſels only can come up to the city, which ſtands about ſeven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter ſhipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great reſort of ſhips to this port, particularly of thoſe bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee iſlands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were 11 churches in Cork, though there are now only ſeven, and yet it has ever ſince that time been eſteemed a thriving city: but it muſt be obſerved, that, beſides the churches, there are at this time ſix maſs-houſes, two diſſenting meeting-houſes, another for quakers, and a chapel for French proteſtants. Kinſale is a populous and ſtrong town, with an excellent harbour, and conſiderable commerce and ſhipping; and it is, moreover, occaſionally a ſtation for the navy royal; for which end this port is furniſhed with

proper naval officers and ſtorekeepers. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and ſhipping, and contains 2561 houſes. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the weſt ſide of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handſome, populous, commercial, ſtrong city; it lies on both ſides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houſes.

Belfaſt is a large ſea-port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen Water, where it falls into Carrickfergus Bay. Downpatrick has a flouriſhing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus), by ſome deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and caſtle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is moſt uſually called) ſtands on Lough-Foyl, is a ſtrong little city, having linen manufactures, with ſome ſhipping. All this extreme north part of Ireland is ſituated ſo near to Scotland, that they are in ſight of each other's coaſts. Donegall, the county town of the ſame name (otherwiſe called the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of ſome trade; as is likewiſe Enniſkilling. All which laſt mentioned places, and many more (though leſs conſiderable ones), are chiefly and induſtriouſly employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen-thread, to the benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vaſt annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewiſe to render the money conſtantly drawn from Ireland into England, by her abſentees, leſs grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no ſtrong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has ſeveral forts and garriſons, that ſerve as comfortable ſinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry, and Culmore Fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinſale, Duncannon, Roſs-Caſtle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of theſe forts is furniſhed with deputy-governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary proviſions from the government.

It cannot be pretended, that Ireland is as yet furniſhed with any public edifices, to compare with thoſe to be found in countries where ſovereigns and their courts reſide; but it has ſome elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taſte and public ſpirit of the inhabitants. The caſtle, Eſſex-bridge, and ſeveral edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent and elegant pieces of architecture; and many noble Gothic churches, and other buildings, are to be ſeen in Ireland.

The Iriſh nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with thoſe of England in the magnificent ſtructure of their houſes, and the elegance of their ornaments. In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, we muſt not forget the numerous barracks where the ſoldiers are lodged, equally to the eaſe and conveniency of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The exports of Ireland are linen cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horſes, and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf-ſkins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, lead, copper ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit-ſkins and fur, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, ſalmon, and ſome other particulars. In the year 1799, the exports from Ireland amounted to £4,575,256, and her imports to £4,396,009. The Iriſh have carried their inland manufactures, even thoſe of luxury, to a conſiderable height; and their lord-lieutenants and their courts have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, make uſe of no other.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The Dublin Society for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, was incorporated in 1750.

The linen-hall, erected at Dublin, is under as juſt and nice regulations as any commercial houſe in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland formerly was only entitled the dominion or lordſhip of Ireland, and the king's ſtyle was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he aſſumed the title of king, which is recogniſed by act of parliament in the ſame reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; ſo England and Ireland are diſtinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For, after the conqueſt of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and ſworn to by the Iriſh nation, aſſembled at the council of Liſmore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, continued in a ſtate of dependence, it was thought neceſſary that it ſhould conform to, and be obliged by, ſuch laws as the ſuperior ſtate thought proper to preſcribe.

But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forgotten, and ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it was thought neceſſary ſome years ago to declare how that matter ſtood: and therefore, by ſtatute 6th of George I. it was declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inſeparably united thereto; and that the king's majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great Britain in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland." This determination of the Britiſh parliament, however, occaſioned much diſſatisfaction among the Iriſh, who at length, after many ſtruggles, feeling their own ſtrength by means of their volunteer aſſociations, and encouraged and favoured by the ſeveral parties contending for the adminiſtration in England, the Iriſh obtained in the year 1782 a formal repeal of the above galling ſtatute, which was conſidered as a renunciation on the part of the parliament of Great Britain of every claim of legiſlation over Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it ſtands at preſent, with regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord-lieutenant, is ſent over from England by the king, whom he repreſents; but his power is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleaſure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the uſual oaths before the lord-chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord-chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate; and he never appears publicly without being attended by a body of horſe-guards. Hence, with reſpect to his authority, his train, and ſplendor, there is no viceroy in Chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, biſhops, earls, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the ſupreme court, which is convened by the king's writ, and generally ſits once every year. It conſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords, and commons. Of the former, many are Engliſh or Britiſh peers, or commons of Great Britain; a few are papiſts, who cannot ſit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amounts to about three hundred. Since the acceſ-

ſion of his preſent majeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered octennial. The repreſentation of the people in the ſenate of Ireland is, in many inſtances, like that of England, partial and imperfect. The acts paſſed by the houſes of lords and commons are ſent to England for the royal approbation, when, if approved of by his majeſty and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned. An union with England is now under diſcuſſion in the Iriſh parliament; it has been voted by both houſes, and will probably be carried into effect in the beginning of the year 1801.

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice, there are in Ireland four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice,—the chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high ſheriffs of the ſeveral counties were formerly choſen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord-lieutenant. From this general view, it appears that the civil and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame in Ireland as in England.

Revenues.] In Ireland the public revenue ariſes from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying it to particular purpoſes: but there is, beſides this, a private revenue ariſing from the ancient demeſne lands, from forfeitures for treaſon and felony, priſage of wines, light-houſe duties, and a ſmall part of the caſual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the ſame unlimited property that a ſubject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a ſecret to the public.

The revenue of Ireland is ſuppoſed at preſent to amount to two millions ſterling, of which the Iriſh complain greatly, and juſtly, that above 100,000l. is granted in penſions, and a great part to abſentees. Very large ſums are alſo granted by their own parliament for more valuable purpoſes, the improvement of their country and civiliſing the people; ſuch as the inland navigation, bridges, highways, churches, premiums, proteſtant ſchools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wiſdom and patriotiſm of that parliament.

Coins.] The coins of Ireland are at preſent of the ſame denominations and the like fabric with thoſe of England, only an Engliſh ſhilling paſſes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Iriſh were is at preſent a matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty.

Military strength.] In conſequence of the late rebellion, and the threats of a French invaſion, a very conſiderable military force is now kept up in Ireland; conſiſting of regular troops and militia from England, Iriſh militia, and yeomanry. The following is the number of men voted by the Iriſh houſe of commons to be maintained for the preſent year (1800):

| | |
|---|---|
| Regular force - - | 45,839 |
| Militia - - - | 27,104 |
| Yeomanry - - | 53,557 |
| Total - | 126,500 |

Order of St. Patrick.] This order was inſtituted February 5, and the inſtallation of the firſt knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord-lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand maſters of the order, and the archbiſhop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbiſhop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the regiſter of the order. The knights are inſtalled in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are ſplendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a croſs, with the motto round, *Quis ſeparabit?* 1783, faſtened

by an Iriſh harp to the crown imperial. A ſtar of eight points encircles it on the coat.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater juſtice than that of almoſt any other country, be diſtinguiſhed into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulſter prince boaſted to the pope of an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of one hundred and ninety-ſeven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Iriſh antiquaries carry their hiſtory up to 500 years before the Chriſtian æra, at which time they aſſert that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, ſettled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into this country: and that however it might have been peopled ſtill earlier from Gaul or Britain, yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the ſons of Mileſius, gave a race of kings to the Iriſh, diſtinguiſhed from their days by the name of Gadelians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and conteſted parts of the Iriſh hiſtory, we ſhall only obſerve, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apoſtle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Chriſtianity in this country, though there had been Chriſtian miſſionaries here long before, by whoſe means it had made a conſiderable progreſs among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occaſionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England; but in the years 795 and 798, the Danes and Norwegians, or, as they were called, Eaſterlings, invaded the coaſt of Ireland, and were the firſt who erected ſome edifices in that kingdom. The common habitations of the Iriſh, till that time, were hurdles covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, and but very few of ſolid timber. The natives defended themſelves bravely againſt the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork; but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Iriſh, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, ſeem to have called to their aſſiſtance the Anglo Saxon king Edgar, who had then a conſiderable maritime power; and this might have given occaſion for his clergy to call him king of great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flouriſhing city, and that the native Iriſh gave the Eaſterlings ſeveral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen from the continent, the Iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a deſign of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is ſaid to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from ſome of the Iriſh chieftains, who had afforded conſiderable aſſiſtance to his enemies. His deſign was patroniſed by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, and an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed againſt him, under Roderic O'Connor (who, it ſeems, was the paramount king of Ireland), he was driven from his country, and took refuge in the court of Henry II. who promiſed to reſtore him, upon taking an oath of fidelity to the crown of England, for himſelf and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cauſe to the Engliſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald. Thoſe noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the ſame principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conqueſt of England under William I. and Strongbow was

to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year, Strongbow arriving with a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The deſcendents of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin, which, after ſome ineffectual oppoſition made by the king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers: but Mac Turkil, the Daniſh king, eſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtates in England and Wales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh about the ſame time, to the amount of above 60,000, beſieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Iriſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs; and going over to England, he appeaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigning into his hands all the Iriſh cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's abſence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege; and in him ended the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers, and the flower of his Engliſh nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulſter, but the great king Roderick O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that conſequently he was the paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the ſtates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a civil adminiſtration at Dublin, as nearly ſimilar as poſſible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony from Briſtol in Dublin, with all the liberties, free cuſtoms, and charters, which the citizens of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flouriſh.—Thus the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh almoſt with as much eaſe as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards, and for much the ſame reaſons,—the rude and unarmed ſtate of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185, went over in perſon to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves hateful to the Iriſh, who were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Engliſh. Richard I. was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his acceſſion, made amends for his former behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter, which was within the Engliſh pale, into twelve counties. We find, however, that the deſcendents of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal ſubjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exerciſed all acts of ſovereignty within their own ſtates; and indeed this was pretty much the caſe ſo late as the reign of James I. The unſettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity, gave the Iriſh a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government during his reign; but they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Edward I. Gaveſton, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the ſucceſſes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh in-

tereſt in Ireland, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the Engliſh governors and armies; and being ſupported by his brother in perſon, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly miſſed being maſter of Dublin. The younger Bruce ſeems to have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty, and he was at laſt defeated and killed by Bermingham, the Engliſh general. After this, Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great loſs and diſgrace on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the Engliſh inhabitants had no inconſiderable ſhare. A ſucceſſion of vigorous, brave governors, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, ſon to Edward III. having married the heireſs of Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and, if poſſible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progreſs, but did not entirely accompliſh it. It appears, at this time, that the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing condition, and that one of the greateſt grievances they complained of was, that the Engliſh ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in England muſt be abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no uſe of force, the Iriſh looked upon his preſence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and beſtowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, he behaved ſo as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very deſpotic manner in England, he undertook a freſh expedition to Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord-lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Iriſh. His army again ſtruck the natives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition that the duke of Lancaſter landed in England; and Richard, upon his return, finding himſelf deſerted by his Engliſh ſubjects on account of his tyranny, and that he could not depend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered his crown to his rival.

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retained a warm affection for the houſe of York; and, upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cauſe. Edward IV. made the earl of Deſmond lord-lieutenant of Ireland for his ſervices againſt the Ormond party and other adherents of the houſe of Lancaſter, and he was the *firſt Iriſh chieftain* that obtained this honour. Even the acceſſion of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Iriſh to his title as duke of Lancaſter: they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the eldeſt ſon of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them ſomewhat cautious at firſt of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithſtanding his plauſible pretences to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon of Edward IV. He was, however, at laſt recogniſed as king by the Iriſh; and, in the preceding pages, under the hiſtory of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretenſions. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to take a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the deſired effect dur-

ing the adminiſtration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting its chiefs againſt each other: but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, his lord-lieutenant. This did not prevent the Iriſh from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz-Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at laſt hanged at Tyburn. After this the houſe of Auſtria found their account, in their quarrels with England, to form a ſtrong party among the Iriſh.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pretenſions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a ſtrong party among the Iriſh themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the conſequence of his claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the Iriſh had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto aſſumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Iriſh, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to ſpeak the truth, it is ſomewhat ſurpriſing that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native Iriſh to Henry's government than ever had been known; and even O'Neil, who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by remitting money, and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, ſtill kept up their intereſt in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpreſſible difficulties to the Engliſh government, even in the reign of Edward VI; but it is remarkable, that the Reformation took place in the Engliſh part of Ireland with little or no oppoſition. The Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual diſputes ſhe had with the Roman-catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneaſineſs; and the pope and the houſe of Auſtria always found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Eſſex, are well known in Engliſh hiſtory.

The lord-deputy Mountjoy, who ſucceeded Eſſex, was the firſt Engliſhman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Iriſh before Kinſale, and bringing Tyrone priſoner to England, where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, ſhown to ſuch an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehenſions Elizabeth had from the popiſh intereſt in Ireland. James I. confirmed the poſſeſſions of the Iriſh; but ſuch was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to ſeize the caſtle of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs fled beyond ſeas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608, they inſtigated Sir Calim O'Dogherty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him ſpeedy ſupplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the diſpute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Iriſh rebels, which paſſed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, veſted in the crown 511,465 acres, in the ſeveral counties of Donegall, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and en-

abled the king to make that proteſtant plantation in the north of Ireland, which, from the moſt rebellious province of the kingdom, became, for many years, the moſt quiet and induſtrious.

Thoſe prodigious attainders, however juſt and neceſſary they might be, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign of Charles I. The Iriſh Roman-catholics in general were influenced by their prieſts to hope not only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefathers, but to reſtore the popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacreing all the Engliſh proteſtants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy diſſenſions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being diſcovered by the Engliſh government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed, in 1641, their horrid ſcheme of maſſacre; but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm proteſtant writers: ſome of the more moderate have eſtimated the numbers of the ſufferers at 40,000; other accounts ſpeak of 10,000 or 12,000, and ſome have diminiſhed that number *. What followed in conſequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Iriſh papiſts upon themſelves, belongs to the hiſtory of England. It is certain that they ſuffered ſo ſeverely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popiſh ſucceſſor, and brother, James II. even after the Revolution took place, found an aſylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the aſſiſtance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own puſillanimity co-operated with his diſappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his ſon-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that king William ever gained in perſon; a victory, however, on which depended the ſafety of the proteſtant religion, and the liberties of the Britiſh empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been re-inſtated on the throne, and nothing elſe could be expected than that, being irritated by oppoſition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every reſtraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and purſued more arbitrary deſigns than before. The army of William conſiſted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000, but advantageouſly ſituated. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undiſciplined rabble: but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving as heroes. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too ſoon for a brave man.

The forfeitures that fell to the crown, on account of the Iriſh rebellions and the Revolution, are almoſt incredible; and had the acts of parliament, which gave them away, been ſtrictly enforced, Ireland muſt have been peopled with Britiſh inhabitants. But many political reaſons occurred for not driving the Iriſh to deſpair. The friends of the Revolution and the proteſtant religion were ſufficiently gratified out of the forfeited eſtates. Too many of the Roman-catholics might have been forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance ſhould be preſerved between the Roman-catholic and the proteſtant intereſt. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put

* Mr. Hume, after enumerating the various barbarities practiſed by the papiſts upon the proteſtants, ſays, "by ſome computations, thoſe who periſhed by all thoſe cruelties are made to amount to an hundred and fifty, or two hundred thouſand; by the moſt moderate, and probably the moſt reaſonable account, they muſt have been near 40,000." Hiſt. of England, vol. vi. p. 377. edit. 8vo. 1763.

the forfeitures too rigorouſly into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wiſdom of the above conſiderations. The lenity of the meaſures purſued in regard to the Iriſh Roman-catholics, and the great pains taken for the inſtruction of their children, with the progreſs which knowledge and the arts have made in that country, have greatly diminiſhed the popiſh intereſt. The ſpirit of induſtry has enabled the Iriſh to know their own ſtrength and importance; to which ſome accidental circumſtances have concurred. All her ports were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament have been made occaſionally for permitting the importation of ſalt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain.

But though ſome laws and regulations had occaſionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it muſt be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of that country laboured under conſiderable grievances, in conſequence of ſundry unjuſt and injudicious reſtraints of the parliament of England, reſpecting their trade. Theſe reſtraints had injured Ireland, without benefiting Great Britain. The Iriſh had been prohibited from manufacturing their own wool, in order to favour the woollen manufactory of England; the conſequence of which was, that the Iriſh wool was ſmuggled over into France, and the people of that country were thereby enabled to rival us in our woollen manufacture, and to deprive us of a part of that trade. An embargo had alſo been laid on the exportation of proviſions from Ireland, which had been extremely prejudicial to that kingdom. The diſtreſſes of the Iriſh manufacturers, as well as thoſe of Great Britain, had likewiſe been much increaſed by the conſequences of the American war. Theſe circumſtances occaſioned great murmuring in Ireland, and ſome attempts were made for the relief of the inhabitants of that kingdom in the Britiſh parliament, but for ſome time without ſucceſs; for a partiality in favour of the trade of England prevented juſtice from being done to Ireland. But ſeveral incidents, which happened afterwards, at length operated ſtrongly in favour of that kingdom. When a large body of the king's troops had been withdrawn from Ireland, in order to be employed in the American war, a conſiderable number of Iriſh gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other perſons, armed and formed themſelves into volunteer companies and aſſociations, for the defence of Ireland againſt any foreign invaders. By degrees, theſe volunteer aſſociations became numerous and well-diſciplined; and it was ſoon diſcovered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights at home, as well as to defend themſelves againſt foreign enemies. When theſe armed aſſociations became numerous and formidable, the Iriſh began to aſſume a higher tone than that to which they had before been accuſtomed; and it was ſoon manifeſt, that their remonſtrances met with unuſual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great Britain. The latter, on the 11th of May, 1779, preſented an addreſs to the king, recommending to his majeſty's moſt ſerious conſideration the diſtreſſed and impoveriſhed ſtate of the loyal and well-deſerving people of Ireland, and deſiring him to direct that there ſhould be prepared and laid before parliament ſuch particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland as ſhould enable the national wiſdom to purſue effectual meaſures for promoting the common ſtrength, wealth, and commerce of his majeſty's ſubjects in both kingdoms. To this addreſs the king returned a favourable anſwer; and in October, the ſame year, both houſes of the Iriſh parliament alſo preſented addreſſes to his majeſty, in which they declared, that nothing but

granting Ireland a free trade could ſave it from ruin. Notwithſtanding which, it being ſoon after ſuſpected, by many of the people of that kingdom, that the members of their parliament would not exert themſelves with vigour in promoting the intereſts of the nation, a very daring and numerous mob aſſembled before the parliament-houſe in Dublin, crying out for a *free trade* and *a ſhort money-bill*. They aſſaulted the members, and endeavoured to compel them to ſwear that they would ſupport the intereſt of their country by voting for a ſhort money-bill; and they demoliſhed the houſe of the attorney-general. The tumult at length ſubſided: and two Iriſh money-bills for ſix months only were ſent over to England, where they paſſed the great ſeal, and were immediately returned, without any diſſatisfaction being expreſſed by government at this limited grant.

In the mean-time the members of the oppoſition in the Engliſh parliament very ſtrongly repreſented the neceſſity of an immediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wiſhes. The arguments on this ſide of the queſtion were alſo enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland, that the volunteer aſſociations in that kingdom amounted to forty thouſand men, unpaid, ſelf-appointed, and independent of government, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in diſcipline, and which afterwards increaſed to eighty thouſand. The Britiſh miniſtry appeared for ſome time to be undetermined what part they ſhould act in this important buſineſs; but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous meaſures reſpecting America, and the very critical ſituation of Great Britain, at length induced the firſt lord of the treaſury to bring in ſuch bills as were calculated to afford effectual commercial relief to the people of Ireland. Laws were accordingly paſſed, by which all thoſe acts were repealed which had prohibited the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to foreign countries had been reſtrained; and it was likewiſe enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the Britiſh colonies in America and the Weſt Indies, and the Britiſh ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, ſhould be allowed to be carried on in the ſame manner, and ſubject to ſimilar regulations and reſtrictions with that carried on between Great Britain and the ſaid colonies and ſettlements.

Theſe laws in favour of Ireland were received with much joy and exultation in that kingdom: and the Iriſh nation being indulged in their requiſitions reſpecting trade, now began alſo to aim at important conſtitutional reformations: and in various counties and cities of Ireland, the right of the Britiſh parliament to make laws, which ſhould bind that kingdom, was denied in public reſolutions. By degrees, the ſpirit which had been manifeſted by the Iriſh parliament ſeemed a little to ſubſide; and a remarkable inſtance of this was, their agreeing to a perpetual mutiny-bill, for the regulation of the Iriſh army, though that of England had always been paſſed, with a true conſtitutional caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaimed againſt by ſome of the Iriſh patriots; and it is indeed not eaſy to clear their parliament from the charge of inconſiſtency: but this bill was afterwards repealed, and the commercial advantages afforded them by ſeveral acts in their favour greatly contributed to promote the proſperity of Ireland. As before obſerved, by the act repealing the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. they were fully and completely emancipated from the juriſdiction of the Britiſh parliament; and the appellant juriſdiction of the Britiſh houſe of peers in Iriſh cauſes was likewiſe given up.

In the year 1783, the government, the nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other in countenancing and giving an aſylum to many families of the Geneveſe who were baniſhed from their city, and to others who voluntarily exiled themſelves for the cauſe of liberty, not willing to ſubmit to an ariſtocracy of their own citizens, ſupported by the ſwords of France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the county of Waterford was allotted for their reception, a town was marked out, entitled *New Geneva*, and a ſum of money granted for erecting the neceſſary buildings. Theſe preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately uſeleſs, by ſome miſunderſtanding (not fully comprehended) which aroſe between the parties; and the ſcheme accordingly fell to the ground.

Upon the occaſion of the unhappy malady with which the king was afflicted, the lords and commons of Ireland came to a reſolution to addreſs the prince of Wales, requeſting him to take upon him the government of that kingdom during his majeſty's indiſpoſition, under the ſtyle and title of *Prince Regent of Ireland*, and to exerciſe and adminiſter, according to the laws and the conſtitution of the realm, all the royal authorities, juriſdictions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government thereof belonging. The marquis of Buckingham (being then lord-lieutenant) having declined preſenting the addreſs, as contrary to his oath and the laws, the two houſes reſolved on appointing delegates from each; the lords appointed the duke of Leinſter, and the earl of Charlemont; and the commons, four of their members. The delegates proceeded to London, and, in February, 1789, preſented the addreſs to his royal highneſs, by whom they were moſt graciouſly received; but his majeſty having, to the infinite joy of all his ſubjects, recovered from his ſevere indiſpoſition, the prince returned them an anſwer fraught with the warmeſt ſentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to parliament, for the generous manner in which they propoſed inveſting him with the regency, though the happy recovery of his royal father had now rendered his acceptance of it unneceſſary.

The parliament of Ireland has extended liberal indulgences to the Roman-catholics of that kingdom, by eſtabliſhing the legality of intermarriage between them and the proteſtants, by admitting them to the profeſſion of the law, and the benefit of education, and by removing all obſtructions upon their induſtry in trade and manufactures. A reciprocal preference in the corn trade with Britain has been eſtabliſhed. Further progreſs has been made in checking the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors; and ſome wiſe inſtitutions have been ordained for the regulation of charitable foundations.

In the year 1793, in conſequence of the conceſſions of government, a bill paſſed the legiſlature, by which the Roman-catholics, being freeholders, are entitled to vote for members to ſerve in parliament. The patriots of Ireland have been leſs ſucceſsful in their attempts to procure a reform in parliament itſelf, as, notwithſtanding the reſolution in the beginning of the ſeſſion to inquire into the ſtate of the repreſentation, nothing effectual has been done; the times, it is alleged, diſcouraging uſeful innovations, from the juſt dread of ruinous or hurtful ones.

Notwithſtanding the catholics of Ireland had been reſtored, in ſome meaſure, to their civil rights, by the conceſſion of the elective franchiſe, it does not appear that either their own leaders or their parliamentary adherents were ſatisfied with what had been granted, or were likely to be contented with leſs than a total repeal of all remaining diſqualifica-

tions; and when in the beginning of the year 1795, earl Fitzwilliam was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, after the acceſſion of the Portland party to adminiſtration, they conſidered the point in diſpute as abſolutely conceded by the miniſtry. A committee was therefore appointed to bring forward a petition to parliament for a repeal of all remaining diſqualifications. Notice of this his lordſhip tranſmitted to the miniſter, ſtating at the ſame time his own opinion of the abſolute neceſſity of conceſſion, as a meaſure not only wiſe but eſſential to the public tranquillity. To this no anſwer was received, and on the 12th of February Mr. Grattan moved for leave to bring in a bill for the further relief of his majeſty's ſubjects profeſſing the Roman-catholic religion; and after a feeble oppoſition, leave was given. By the intrigues, however, of another political party, at the head of which was Mr. Beresford, a gentleman who had united in his own perſon, or in that of his ſon, the important and diſcordant offices of miniſter—commiſſioner of the treaſury—of revenue—counſel to the commiſſioners—ſtore-keeper, and banker—the meaſure was defeated, and lord Fitzwilliam ſuddenly recalled. His lordſhip left Dublin for England on the 25th of March, which day was obſerved in that city as a day of general mourning: the ſhops were ſhut; no buſineſs was tranſacted; and the citizens appeared in deep mourning. In College-green a number of reſpectable gentlemen, dreſſed in black, took the horſes from his excellency's carriage, and drew it to the water-ſide. His lordſhip wiſhed, as uſual on ſuch occaſions, to diſtribute money; but, with the nobleſt enthuſiaſm, the offer was rejected, even by a mob. The military had been ordered out, in expectation of ſome diſturbance; but nothing appeared among the populace but the ſerious emotions of ſorrow, and the utmoſt order and decorum.

Earl Camden, who was appointed to ſucceed his lordſhip, arrived in Dublin on the 31ſt of March. The whole ſyſtem of adminiſtration was now changed; all ideas of conceſſion on the part of government were abandoned, and coercive meaſures alone employed to ſilence all complaints. Of this harſh and unyielding ſyſtem, the factious and diſaffected took advantage to promote their deſigns, and increaſe the numbers of their adherents.

About the beginning of the year 1791, the ſociety, which has ſince become ſo notorious under the name of *United Iriſhmen*, was inſtituted; the oſtenſible principles of which were parliamentary reform, and what they choſe to term catholic emancipation, or a full reſtoration of the catholics to all the privileges of Iriſh ſubjects. This ſociety is ſaid to have owed its origin to a perſon whoſe life has ſince paid the forfeit of his treaſonable intrigues, Mr. Theobald Wolfe Tone, and its conſtitution certainly evinced much ability and political knowledge. The real views of the authors and leaders, which, latterly at leaſt, appear to have been no leſs than to effect a total ſeparation of the country from Great Britain, and the erection of a republic, after the plan and under the protection of France, were probably ſcarcely miſtruſted by the great body of the members. The firſt and principal article expreſſed that "the ſociety was conſtituted for the purpoſe of forwarding a brotherhood of affection, a community of rights, and an union of power among Iriſhmen of every religious perſuaſion, and thereby to obtain a complete reform in the legiſlature, founded on the principles of civil, political, and religious liberty." For ſeveral years this ſociety, from the ſecrecy and circumſpection with which its affairs were conducted, attracted but little

the attention of government. But the violence of party diſputes which followed on the recall of earl Fitzwilliam conſiderably increaſed the number of its adherents, and added to them ſeveral perſons of abilities and influence,—in particular Mr. Arthur O'Connor, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his able ſupport of earl Fitzwilliam's adminiſtration in the houſe of commons; Dr. M'Nevin, who had been chairman of the committee for enforcing the claims ſet forth in the catholic petition; and Mr. Oliver Bond, an opulent citizen of Dublin, who had been an active ſupporter of the ſame principles. From the confeſſion of theſe very perſons, it appears, however, that when they joined the ſociety the views of its leaders were no longer confined to parliamentary or conſtitutional relief of any kind; ſince in the year 1795, through the medium of Mr. Tone, and other Iriſh refugees who had fled to France, a regular communication was opened between the French directory and the United Iriſhmen; and in the courſe of the ſummer of 1796, lord Edward Fitzgerald proceeded to Switzerland, and had an interview, near the French frontier, with general Hoche, when it is believed the whole plan of an invaſion was finally adjuſted. An attempt to carry it into execution was made in the December following, when the French fleet took the opportunity afforded by a thick fog to elude the vigilance of admiral Colpoys, by whom they had been for ſeveral months blocked up in Breſt, and ſet ſail for Ireland. But the fleet was diſperſed by violent ſtorms: a part of it, however, conſiſting of eight two-deckers, and nine other veſſels of different claſſes, anchored, on the 24th, in Bantry bay. The violence of the weather preventing any attempt to effect a landing, they quitted the coaſt on the 27th in the evening; but an officer and ſeven men were driven on ſhore in a boat belonging to one of the French ſhips. This officer, upon examination, ſtated that the fleet, when it left Breſt, conſiſted of about fifty ſail, and that it had on board twenty-five thouſand men, commanded by general Hoche. A conſiderable degree of alarm was excited in Ireland by the appearance of this armament, but the people in general in this part of the kingdom evinced the moſt determined loyalty, and manifeſted the greateſt readineſs to meet and reſiſt the enemy wherever they might attempt a deſcent.

The failure of the expedition under Hoche did not, however, diſcourage the members of the Iriſh Union; they, on the contrary, endeavoured more firmly to cement their alliance with France, and eſtabliſhed a regular communication and correſpondence with that country. New arrangements were made for an invaſion, and Dr. M'Nevin, about this time, tranſmitted to the French government a memorial, in which he ſtated that 150,000 United Iriſhmen were enrolled and organiſed in the province of Ulſter. During the ſummer of 1797, great preparations were therefore made for a ſecond attempt, both at Breſt and in the Texel; it having been determined that the Dutch ſhould ſupply a fleet and land forces to co-operate in this deſign. But this plan was rendered abortive by the memorable victory of lord Duncan over the Dutch fleet, on the 11th of October of that year.

In the beginning of the year 1798, Mr. O'Connor came to England, with an intention, as it afterwards appeared, of going over to France, in conjunction with John Binns, an active member of the London Correſponding Society, James Coigley, an Iriſh prieſt, and a perſon of the name of Allen. Being, however, ſuſpected, they were apprehended, and tried at Maidſtone, where they were all acquitted except Coigley, on whom had been found a treaſonable, though extremely abſurd paper, purporting to be an addreſs from the "Secret Committee of England to

the Executive Directory of France. He was therefore convicted and executed. O'Connor, after his acquittal, was detained on another charge of treaſon preferred againſt him, and ſent back to Ireland.

In the courſe of theſe different negociations with the enemy, the violence of ſome of the diſaffected party in Ireland could ſcarcely be reſtrained from breaking out into open inſurrection, without waiting for the promiſed aſſiſtance from the Gallic republic; but they were overruled by thoſe who had more coolneſs and caution. The government of Ireland, in the mean time, received only obſcure and perplexed intelligence of theſe proceedings, which appear to have been conducted with ſo much art and ſecrecy as to prevent adminiſtration from diſcovering, for a conſiderable time, the real views and conduct of the ſociety. But at length they received information that a ſeditious meeting was to be held at the houſe of a perſon of the name of Alexander, at Belfaſt, on the 14th of April, 1797; and, in conſequence, colonel Barber, with a detachment of ſoldiers, proceeded on that day to the place of meeting, where he found two ſocieties or committees actually ſitting, and ſeized their papers and minutes, among which were the printed declaration and conſtitution of the United Iriſhmen, various reports from provincial and county committees, and ſeveral other important documents, which left them no longer in doubt reſpecting the extent and the views of this formidable conſpiracy. About the ſame time, likewiſe, the magiſtrates in other parts of the kingdom diſcovered other papers that were circulated by the ſociety, and which ſerved to confirm the diſcoveries already made, and to throw additional light on the proceedings of the conſpirators.

The moſt active and vigorous meaſures were now adopted by government; a very conſiderable addition was made to the military force of the kingdom; a bill was paſſed, prohibiting ſeditious meetings; the habeas corpus act was ſuſpended; whole counties were proclaimed out of the king's peace, and ſeizures made of great quantities of concealed arms. In the enforcement of theſe meaſures, many acts of rigour, and even cruelty, appear to have been committed by the agents of government; but it ſhould be at the ſame time remembered, that numerous acts of atrocious barbarity were likewiſe committed by the rebels. The loyaliſts knew that if the ſchemes of their enemies proved ſucceſsful, the plunder and confiſcation of their property was the leaſt evil they had to fear. The concealment and obſcurity of the danger they knew to be imminent might well excite a dread which rendered them incapable of liſtening to the dictates of moderation, or even, in ſome caſes, of juſtice.

Theſe rigorous meaſures were, likewiſe, in ſome degree, ſtill further juſtified by the more complete diſcovery which government ſoon after made of the traitorous deſigns and proceedings of the ſociety. Among other members of it, was a Mr. Reynolds, who had formerly been a ſilk-manufacturer of ſome note in the city of Dublin. He had been ſworn an United Iriſhman in February, 1797, and in the winter following appointed treaſurer for the county of Kildare, in which he reſided, and alſo a colonel in the rebel army. This perſon, whether moved by remorſe and returning love for his country, or by other motives, it is not neceſſary to inquire, diſcloſed to government, about the latter end of February, 1798, the nature and extent of the conſpiracy, and a meeting of delegates being ſummoned for the 12th of March, at the houſe of Mr. Oliver Bond, he gave information of it, in conſequence of which fourteen of the delegates were apprehended, with their ſecretary, M'Can; and at

the ſame time Dr. M'Nevin, counſellor Emmett, and ſome other active members of the ſocieties, were taken into cuſtody. A warrant had been iſſued againſt lord Edward Fitzgerald, but he eſcaped; he was afterwards, however, diſcovered in the place of his concealment, when, on the police officers entering the room, the unhappy nobleman made a deſperate defence: he wounded two of the principal of them, Mr. Juſtice Swan, and captain Ryan, dangerouſly; and was himſelf ſo ſeverely wounded, that he languiſhed a few days only before he expired.

The ſeizure of the delegates gave a fatal blow to all the plans of the United Iriſhmen. A new directory was choſen, but their proceedings were ſoon diſcloſed by another informer, a captain Armſtrong, who had pretended to enter into the conſpiracy with the intention of diſcovering their ſchemes and betraying them to government. The confuſion and alarm into which the rebels were thrown by the diſcovery of their plots, and the apprehending of their leaders, determined them to make a deſperate effort, and a general inſurrection was reſolved on by the military committee, to take place on the 23d of March. But government being perfectly informed of the intentions of the conſpirators, cauſed ſeveral of the principal of them to be apprehended; on the 19th and 21ſt the city and county of Dublin were proclaimed, by the lord-lieutenant and council, in a ſtate of inſurrection; the guards of the caſtle and all the principal objects of attack were trebled, and the whole city in fact converted into a garriſon. The infatuated multitude, however, implicitly obedient to the directions they had received from their leaders, roſe at the time appointed in various parts of the country, and, on the 25th, appeared in great force, their number amounting to not leſs than 15,000, in the neighbourhood of Wexford and Enniſcorthy, and attacked and cut in pieces the whole of a party of the North Cork militia, except colonel Foote, and two privates. They then made an attack, on the 28th, on the town of Enniſcorthy, which they carried ſword in hand; and on the 30th made themſelves maſters of Wexford, where they liberated from priſon Mr. Beauchamp Bagenal Harvey, who was afterwards nominated to the chief command of their army. Under him, as their general, they attacked the town of New Roſs, but were repulſed with great ſlaughter. They were likewiſe repulſed in their attacks on ſome other places. The royal forces, however, ſuffered a check on the 4th of June, when the ſtrong poſt of the rebels being attacked by colonel Walpole, he was unfortunately killed in the beginning of the action, and his corps, being in a ſituation in which it was unable to act, was forced to retire to Arklow. Encouraged by this ſucceſs, the rebel army, on the 9th, preſented itſelf before Arklow, where general Needham commanded a conſiderable body of the king's troops; but the poſition that general had taken, and the diſpoſitions he made, were ſuch that they were defeated with great loſs.

On the 21ſt of June, general Lake made his grand attack on the ſtrong poſition of the rebels on Vinegar-hill, near Enniſcorthy, having gradually collected troops from every part till he had almoſt ſurrounded them. They maintained their ground obſtinately for an hour and a half, but at length fled with precipitation, leaving behind them a great number of killed and wounded, and thirteen ſmall pieces of ordnance of different calibres.

Immediately after this action, a large body of the king's forces advanced to Wexford, which general Moore entered ſo opportunely, as to prevent the town from being laid in aſhes. The rebels before they evacuated the town, offered to treat; but general Lake refuſed to ſign any

terms with rebels with arms in their hands; though to the deluded multitude he promiſed pardon, on condition of delivering up their leaders and returning to their allegiance. The rebel troops immediately evacuated the town; their general, Bagénal Harvey, had quitted them ſoon after the battle of New Roſs, but being diſcovered and taken with ſome others in a cave, he was tried by a court-martial, and executed on the bridge of Wexford.

In the beginning of June alarming commotions likewiſe took place in the North of Ireland, and the inſurrection ſoon became almoſt general in the counties of Down and Antrim; but on the 12th the rebels received a complete defeat at Ballynahinch, where they loſt upwards of four hundred men. They fought with great obſtinacy, and their leader Munro was taken priſoner, and afterwards executed.

The Engliſh government, in the mean time, though not diſſatisfied with the conduct of lord Camden, reſolved to give Ireland a military lord-lieutenant; and the marquis Cornwallis arrived at Dublin in that capacity on the 20th of June, and immediately aſſumed the reins of government. The conduct of his lordſhip was temporate and judicious. On the 17th of July he ſent a meſſage to the houſe of commons by lord Caſtlereagh, intimating that he had received his majeſty's commands to acquaint them "that he had ſignified his gracious intention of granting a general pardon for all offences committed on or before a certain day, upon ſuch conditions, and with ſuch exceptions, as might be compatible with the general ſafety."—But "theſe offers of mercy to the repentent were not to preclude meaſures of vigour againſt the obſtinate."

A ſpecial commiſſion was now opened in Dublin for the trial of the principal delinquents,—ſeveral of whom were tried and executed. Among them Mr. Oliver Bond was tried, convicted, and condemned, and in his fate the other conſpirators began to foreſee their own. The rebellion appeared to be completely cruſhed; the fugitive rebels were every where returning to their allegiance, and delivering up their arms, and no hope remained of any effectual aſſiſtance from France. In this ſituation a negociation was opened between the Iriſh government and the ſtate priſoners, the iſſue of which was, that government conſented to pardon Mr. Bond, and deſiſt from any farther proſecution of the other leaders of the conſpiracy, who on their parts engaged to make a full confeſſion of all the proceedings and plans of the ſociety; after which they were to be permitted to tranſport themſelves to any country not at war with his majeſty. The information they communicated was laid before the Iriſh houſe of commons, and has furniſhed materials for the brief account here given. Mr. Oliver Bond ſurvived his pardon only a few days, and Mr. Arthur O'Connor, Dr. M'Nevin, and the reſt, after having been a conſiderable time confined in Ireland, were removed to priſons in Scotland, where they ſtill remain.

After the failure of the expedition under general Hoche, France, fortunately for Great Britain, made no attempt to aſſiſt the Iriſh inſurgents till it was too late; and the aid they then ſent was very feeble and inadequate to the end propoſed. On the 22d of Auguſt, ſome frigates and tranſports from France appeared in Killala Bay, and landed about a thouſand men, with a quantity of arms and ammunition. The number of inſurgents who joined the invaders was not conſiderable; but the French general Humbert, by his conduct, proved himſelf an officer of ability, and worthy of command where there was a fairer proſpect of

ſucceſs. He advanced without loſs of time to Caſtlebar, where general Lake was collecting his forces, attacked, and compelled him to retreat with the loſs of ſix pieces of cannon and a few men, after which he advanced towards Tuam; but on the 7th of September the marquis Cornwallis came up with the French in the vicinity of Caſtlebar, when they retreated, and the next morning, after a ſlight reſiſtance, ſurrendered at diſcretion. The rebels who had joined them were diſperſed, and a great number of them killed or taken. Another effort was afterwards made by the French to ſupport, or rather to rekindle the flames of rebellion in Ireland. On the 17th of September a fleet ſailed from France, conſiſting of one ſhip of the line (the Hoche) and eight frigates, with troops and ammunition on board, deſtined for Ireland; but this armament was completely defeated by the ſquadron under the command of Sir John Borlaſe Warren, as has been already related in our ſummary of the affairs of England.

The few remaining troops of rebels, who were diſperſed among the woods and mountains, now ſucceſſively laid down their arms. A chief of the name of Holt, at the head of a number of banditti, continued for ſome time to commit depredations in the mountainous parts of the county of Wicklow; but at laſt it was believed that he made terms with government, and was permitted to ſave his life by relinquiſhing for ever his native country.

Every eſtimate of the number of thoſe who loſt their lives in this deplorable conteſt muſt neceſſarily be vague and uncertain. Some have ſtated it at thirty thouſand, while others have ſwelled it to a hundred thouſand,—of whom they ſay, nine tenths were of the inſurgents; the loſs of the royaliſts being about ten thouſand men. Slaughter and deſolation have at length procured a kind of peace; but the great problem is to diſcover by what means the flames of diſcord may be prevented from burſting out afreſh. As the moſt effectual preventative of a repetition of theſe calamities, government has recommended, and appears determined to effect, a legiſlative union of the two kingdoms. A propoſition for ſuch an union was ſubmitted to the parliament of England and Ireland on the ſame day (January 22, 1799), and in both houſes of the Engliſh parliament, the addreſs, which is conſidered as an approbation of the meaſure, paſſed without diviſion. A ſimilar addreſs was carried in the Iriſh houſe of lords by a majority of thirty-three, but rejected in the commons by a majority of two, which the next day increaſed to ſix againſt the meaſure, which was therefore laid aſide for that time. Government, however, by no means totally abandoned it; for in the beginning of the next ſeſſion, on the 15th of January, 1800, the propoſition was again ſubmitted to the parliament of Ireland; when the addreſs in the houſe of lords paſſed without a debate, and, after an animated diſcuſion in the commons, which laſted till the noon of the following day, was approved by a majority of forty-two. The articles of this union, which have ſince been voted, import,

"That the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland ſhall, upon the 1ſt day of January, which ſhall be in the year of our Lord 1801, and for ever after, be united into one kingdom, by the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland:"—"that of the peers of Ireland at the time of the union, four ſpiritual lords, by rotation of ſeſſions, and twenty-eight temporal peers for life, ſhall be the number to ſit and vote in the houſe of lords; and one hundred commoners (viz. two for each county of Ireland, two for the city of Dublin, two for the city of Cork, and one for each of the thirty-two moſt conſiderable cities, towns, and boroughs),

be the number of repreſentatives of Ireland in the houſe of commons of the parliament of the United Kingdom."

It is alſo provided by theſe articles "that, for the ſpace of twenty years after the union ſhall take place, the contribution of Great Britain and Ireland reſpectively towards the expenditure of the united kingdom in each year ſhall be defrayed in the proportion of fifteen parts for Great Britain, and two parts for Ireland," this proportion at the expiration of that time to be ſubject to reviſion and regulation from other conſiderations.

That this plan of union will be ultimately carried into effect, little doubt appears now to remain. How far it will prove a remedy for the diſtreſſed condition and diſcontents of the poor time muſt diſcover. At firſt view it ſeems difficult to ſay how a legiſlative union can remove the cauſe of the civil commotions which have lately diſtracted that unfortunate kingdom; how it can leſſen religious prejudices, or prevent, what it ſeems rather calculated to increaſe, the expenditure of Iriſh property at a diſtance from the country whence it is derived. Yet muſt it not be denied that unity in government has many advantages, and is indeed eſſentially neceſſary; and that a cloſe connection and firm conſolidation of the three kingdoms, with an impartial and equal diſtribution of protection and rights, fairly granted and faithfully maintained, muſt tend to infuſe new life into every part of the united nation, while it adds to the proſperity, the wealth, and the power of the whole.

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# FRANCE.

HAVING gone over the Britiſh iſles, we ſhall now return to the continent, beginning with the extenſive and powerful country of France, being the neareſt to England, though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

## SITUATION and EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 600 | between | 5 Weſt and 8 Eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth 500 | | 42 and 51 North latitude. |

Containing 160,374 ſquare miles, with 155 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the Engliſh Channel and the Netherlands on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, Eaſt; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biſcay, Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] The ancient provinces of this kingdom were divided by the firſt national aſſembly into 83 departments, as follow:

Plate X.

# FRANCE, divided into MILITARY GOVERNMENTS.

British Statute Miles.
10 20 40 60 80 100
French Leagues 25 to a Degree
5 10 20 30 40

Longitude West from London.

Longitude East from London.

ATLANTIC OCEAN

ENGLAND

BRITISH CHANNEL

Straits of Dover

NETHERLANDS

GERMANY

SWITZERLAND

ITALY

SPAIN

BAY OF BISCAY

MEDITERRANEAN SEA

Lands End
Lizard Pt
Edistone
Plymouth
Truro
Falmouth
Start Pt
Weymouth
Tor Bay
Portland I.
Lof Wight
Portsmouth
Beachy Hd
Dover
Rye
Hastings
Dunkirk
Ostend
Bruges
Ghent
Malines
Louvain
Maestricht
Cologne
Aix la Chapelle
Bonn
Limburg
Spa
Liege
Brussels
Namur
Tournay
Lisle
Douay
Mons
Valenciennes
Le Quesnoy
Cambray
Arras
Montreuil
St Pol
Calais
St Omer
Boulogne
Estaples
Agincourt
Abbeville
Dieppe
Eu
Amiens
Peronne
St Quinten
Guise
Rocroy
Sedan
Longwy
Mezieres
Laon
Rethel
Buzancy
Soissons
Rheims
Attigny
Clermont
Senlis
Pontoise
Meaux
Thierry
Epernay
Chalons
Verdun
Metz
St Mihiel
Bar le Duc
Nancy
Toul
Pont-a-mouson
Boulay
Briey
Thionville
Sarre Louis
Weissenbourg
Worms
Manheim
Spire
Hagenau
Saverne
Strasburg
Schlestat
Colmar
Basil
Soleure
Neufchatel
Lausanne
Geneva
Annecy
Mont Blanc
Aroste
Turin
Saluzzo
Alps Mountains
Grenoble
Briancon
Embrun
Gap
Die
Romans
Valence
Tournon
Le Puy
Privas
Viviers
Nions
Serres
Barcelonette
Sisteron
Digne
Vaison
Orange
Carpentras
Avignon
Apt
Forcalquier
Monosque
Vence
Nice
Grasse
Frejus
Brignoles
Toulon
C. Taillat
Hyeres Is
Marseilles
Aix
Salon
Arles
Barjols
Nismes
Cavaillon
Uzes
Card R.
Alais
Lodeve
Montpelier
Cette
Agde
Bezieres
Narbonne
Gulph of the Lion
Perpignan
Collioure
Prades
Quillon
Roussillon
Foix
Aleth
Mirepoix
Carcassone
Lombez
Castelnau
Rieux
St Papoul
Revel
St Pons
Toulouse
Auch
Condom
Agen
Nerac
Tartas
Dax
Aire
Bayonne
St Sever
Nogaro
Navarre &
Bearn
Pau
Oleron
St Jean
Tarbes
Pamiers
Lourde
Bagneres
St Lizier
Pyrenean Mountains
Angelez
Iaraxon
Bourdeaux
C. Ferret
Arcachon
Blaye
Dordogne R.
Gourdon
Ste Cere
Lot R.
Cahors
Figeac
Rhodez
Espalion
Entraques
Mende
Florac
Milhau
Lanzerte
Moissac
Gaillac
Alby
Vabres
Lavour
Castres
Royal Canal
Montauban
Caussade
Leitour
Meymac
Roquefort
Mt de Marsan
Meminan
Libourne
Bourg
Blaye
Barbezieux
Xaintes
Angoulesme
Ruffec
Limoges
Nontron
St Yrieux
Ussel
Tulle
Excideuil
Riberac
Perigueux
Terrasson
Montpont
Bergerac
Sarlat
Martel
Aurillac
Pleaux
St Flour
Brioude
Issoire
Port Dieu
Clermont
Riom
Thiers
Montbrison
Ambert
Billom
Lyons
Tillefranche
Roanne
Bourgoin
Vienne
St Estienne
Moirau
St Rambert
Trevaux
Belley
Bourg
Macon
Chalons
Autun
Arnay le Duc
Dijon
Dole
Quingey
Salins
Besancon
St Hypolite
Belfort
Jussey
Vesoul
Langres
Chaumont
Bar sur Aube
Troyes
Nogent
Provins
Melun
Fontainebleau
Etampes
Chartres
Versailles
St Germain
Paris
Meaux
Epernay
Chalons
Vitry
Sezanne
Joinville
Mirecourt
Neufchateau
Vezelize
Epinal
Bayon
Luneville
Saarbourg
Phalsbourg
Fenestrange
Dieuze
Vic
Pont-a-mousson
Verdun
Ste Menehould
Rethel
Mezieres
Sedan
Longwy
Montmedy
Stenay
Clermont
Varennes
Grandpre
Rethel
Vouziers
Rocroy
Guise
Peronne
Roye
Montdidier
Corbie
Amiens
Abbeville
Montreuil
Hesdin
Arras
Bethune
Lisle
Tournay
Courtray
Oudenarde
Ghent
Bruges
Ostend
Dunkirk
Gravelines
Calais
St Omer
Aire
Lillers
Bethune
Douay
Valenciennes
Le Quesnoy
Cambray
Bapaume

Plate 15

# FRANCE
divided into
CIRCLES
*and*
DEPARTMENTS.

**Names of the Metropolitan Circles.**

1 Circle of Paris
2 ——— the Coasts of the Channel
3 ——— the North East
4 ——— the East
5 ——— the South East
6 ——— the Coasts of the Mediterranean
7 ——— the South
8 ——— the South West
9 ——— the North West
10 ——— the Centre

**Explanation.**

Boundaries of the Metropolitan Circles
Do of the Departments
Seats of the Metropolitans
Do of the Bishops
Towns giving a Name to a District
Do having a Tribunal of Justice
The principal place in each Department in Print as Caen

British Statute Miles.
10 20 40 50 60 70
French Leagues 25 to a Degree.
5 10 20 30 40

Longitude West from London.

| | Departments. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Isle of France. | Paris | Paris { N.L. 48°50′ E.L. 2°25′ |
| | Seine and Oise | Verſailles |
| | Seine and Marne | Melun |
| | Oise | Beauvais |
| | Aisne | Laon |
| | Somme, *Picardy* | Amiens |
| | Cal. Straits, *Artois* | Arras |
| | North, *Flanders* | Douay |
| Normandy. | Lower Seine | Rouen |
| | Calvados | Caen |
| | Orne | Alençon |
| | Eure | Evreux |
| | Channel | Coutance |
| Brittany. | Isle & Villaine | Rennes |
| | Lower Loire | Nantes |
| | Finisterre | Quimper |
| | North Coast | St. Brieux |
| | Morbihan | Vannes |
| Poitou. | Vienne | Poitiers |
| | Vendee | Fontenai-comte |
| | Two Sevres | Niort |
| | Lower Charente | Saintes |
| Guienne. | Gironde | Bourdeaux |
| | Upper Vienne | Limoges |
| | Lot and Garonne | Agen |
| | Aveiron | Rodez |
| | Dordogne | Perigueux |
| | Lot | Cahors |
| Gaſcony. | Gers | Auch |
| | Upper Pyrenees | Tarbes |
| | Lower Pyrenees | Pau |
| | Landes | Marſan |
| | Eaſt Pyrenees | Perpignan |
| Languedoc. | Upper Garonne | Touloufe |
| | Gard | Niſmes |
| | Herault | Montpelier |
| | Arriege | Foix |
| | Tarne | Caſtres |
| | Aude | Carcaſſone |
| | Lozere | Mende |
| Provence. | Mouths of Rhone | Aix |
| | Var | Toulon |
| | Lower Alps | Digne |

| | Inland Departments. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Fr. Lorraine. Alſace. | Moselle | Metz |
| | Vosges | Epinal |
| | Meurte | Nanci |
| | Meuse | Bar-le-duc |
| | Lower Rhine | Straſbourg |
| | Upper Rhine | Colmar |
| Champagne. | Aube | Troyes |
| | Marne | Châlons |
| | Upper Marne | Chaumont |
| | Ardennes | Mezieres |
| Bar- gundy. Comte. | Doubs | Beſançon |
| | Jura | Lons le Saunier |
| | Upper Saone | Veſoul |
| | Côte D'Or | Dijon |
| | Saone and Loire | Macon |
| | Yonne | Auxerre |
| Dauphiné. | Iſere | Grenoble |
| | Drome | Valence |
| | Upper Alps | Gap |
| | Ardeche | Privas |
| | Rhône and Loire | Lyons |
| Au- verne. | Puy de Dome | Clermont |
| | Cantal | St. Flour |
| | Upper Loire, *Vel.* | Le Puy |
| | Coreze, *Limoſin* | Tulles |
| | Creuse, *Marche* | Gueret |
| | Chapente, *Aug.* | Angoulême |
| | Allier, *Bourbon.* | Moulins |
| Berry. | Cher | Bourges |
| | Ain | Bourg |
| | Indre | Chateauroux |
| | Indre & Loire, *To.* | Tours |
| Maine. | Sarte | Le Mans |
| | Mayenne | Laval |
| | Maine and Loire | Angers |
| Orléans. | Loiret | Orléans |
| | Eure and Loire | Chartres |
| | Loire and Cher | Blois |
| | Nievre, *Nivernois* | Nevers |
| | Corsica Iſland | Baſtia. |

Theſe are the original eighty-three departments into which France was divided by the firſt national aſſembly. But, by later decrees, the department of Rhône and Loire has been divided into two departments: the department of the Rhône, the chief town *Lyons*; and that of the Loire, the chief town *Montbriſſon*. Corſica has likewiſe been divided into two departments: Golo, the chief town *Baſtia*; and Liamone, the chief town *Ajaccio*. Savoy has alſo been annexed to the republic, under the name of the department of Mount Blanc,—the chief town *Chamberry*; as has likewiſe a part of Switzerland, lately belonging to the biſhop of Baſle, by the name of the department of Mount Terri-

BLE,—the chief town *Porcutrui*. The county of Nice has been declared a department of France, by the name of the MARITIME ALPS,—the chief town, *Nice*. The territory of Avignon and county of Venaiſſin, which, in the original diviſion, were included in Corſica, now form the department of VAUCLUSE,—the chief town *Avignon*. Theſe make the number of the departments eighty-nine, to which the French add nine more, into which they have divided Belgium, or the Auſtrian Netherlands, ceded to them by the late treaty of Campo Formio; but as theſe latter have been ſo lately annexed to the French republic, and as the war between France and the emperor ſo ſoon recommenced, and ſtill continues, they cannot as yet be conſidered as forming a part of France. Every department is ſubdivided into *diſtricts*, and each diſtrict into *cantons*.

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Francs, or *Freemen*, a German nation, reſtleſs and enterpriſing, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants: and the Roman force not being able to repreſs them, they were permitted to ſettle in the country by treaty. By its ſituation, it is the moſt compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpoſe both of power and commerce; and ſince the beginning of the 15th century, the inhabitants have availed themſelves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the country, is in general mild and wholeſome; but ſome late authors think it is not nearly ſo ſalubrious as is pretended; and it muſt be acknowledged, that the French have been but too ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country. It muſt indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and ſettled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intenſely cold, and the inhabitants not ſo well ſupplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent ſoil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almoſt every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than thoſe of England; but neither the paſturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats, in many parts, burn up the ground, ſo that it has no verdure; and the ſoil barely produces as much rye and cheſnuts as ſerve to ſubſiſt the poor inhabitants: but the chief misfortune attending the French ſoil is, that the inhabitants, having been uncertain of enjoying the full fruits of their labour, have not applied themſelves ſufficiently to agriculture. But nature has done wonders for them; and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vaſt plenty.

Notwithſtanding great efforts made in agriculture, much of the land remains uncultivated; and although ſome provinces, as Alſace and Languedoc, yield an exuberance of corn, it is frequently imported.—Indeed all Europe, one year with another, does not produce ſufficient corn for its own conſumption; and it is neceſſary to have ſupplies from the luxuriant harveſts of America.

The French had endeavoured to ſupply the loſs ariſing from their precarious title to their lands, by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but thoſe expedients, however ſucceſsful they may be in particular inſtances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the huſbandman is ſure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. No nation is better ſupplied than France is with wholeſome ſprings and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent uſe, by the help of art and engines,

for all the conveniences of life. Of their canals and mineral waters, diſtinct notice will be hereafter taken.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; the Voſges, which ſeparate the department of that name from the departments of Upper Saone and Upper Rhine; Mount Jura, which divides France from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the late province of Languedoc; and Mont d'Or in Puy de Dome.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhône, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its courſe north and north-weſt, being, with all its windings from its ſource to the ſea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhône flows on the ſouth-weſt to Lyons, and then runs on due ſouth, till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne riſes in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its courſe firſt north-eaſt, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, ſoon after its riſe, runs to the north-weſt, viſiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the Engliſh Channel at Havre. To theſe we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhône at Lyons; the Charente, which riſes near Havre de Grace, and diſcharges itſelf in the Bay of Biſcay at Rochefort. The Rhine, which riſes in Switzerland, is the eaſtern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moſelle and the Sarte in its paſſage. The Somme, which riſes in the department of Aiſne, and paſſing by St. Quentin, Peronne, and Amiens, falls into the Engliſh Channel below Abbeville. The Var, which riſes in the Alps, and runs ſouth, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, weſt of Nice. The Adour riſes in the department of the Upper Pyrenees, and, running from eaſt to weſt by Tarbes and Dax, falls into the Bay of Biſcay, below Bayonne.

The vaſt advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which ariſes to France from thoſe rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1660, and completed in 1680; it was intended for a communication between the Ocean and the Mediterranean, for the ſpeedier paſſage of the French fleet: but though it was carried on at an immenſe expenſe for 100 miles, over hills and valleys, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not anſwered that purpoſe. By the canal of Calais, travellers eaſily paſs by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orléans is another noble work, and runs a courſe of eighteen leagues, to the immenſe benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpreſſibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomleſs. There is another at Iſſoire, in Puy de Dome: and one at La Beſſe, into which if a ſtone be thrown, it cauſes a noiſe like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS, AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS. The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The beſt judges think, however, that the cures performed by them are more owing to their accidental ſucceſs with ſome great perſons, and the ſalubrity of the air and ſoil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach, in the department of the Upper Rhine, are ſaid to cure the palſy, weak nerves, and the ſtone.

At Bagneiis, not far from Bareges, are ſeveral wholeſome minerals and baths, to which people reſort as to the Engliſh baths, at ſpring and autumn. Forges, in the department of the Lower Seine, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and thoſe of St. Amand cure the gravel and obſtructions. It would be endleſs to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable ſprings; but there is one near Aigne, in Puy de Dome, which boils violently, and makes a noiſe like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taſte, but has a poiſonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die inſtantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] France has many unworked *mines*, which would be very productive, if duly attended to; but at preſent do not yield minerals ſufficient for conſumption; ſteel alone is imported, to the annual value of 125,000l. The late province of Languedoc is ſaid to contain veins of gold and ſilver. Alſace has mines of ſilver and copper, but they are too expenſive to be wrought. Alabaſter, black marble, jaſper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Salt-petre is made in every part of the kingdom, and *ſea-ſalt* is now procured free from oppreſſive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dyeing, particularly the beſt drab cloth: and in the province of Anjou are ſeveral quarries of fine white ſtone. Some excellent turquoiſes (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-ſtone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] France abounds in excellent roots, in all kinds of ſeaſonings and ſallads, and in excellent fruits of all kinds, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, cheſnuts, cider in the northern provinces, and capers in the ſouthern. It produces annually, though not enough for conſumption, above twelve million pounds of tobacco, beſides hemp, flax, manna, ſaffron, and many drugs. Alſace, Burgundy, Lorraine, and eſpecially the Pyrenean mountains, ſupply it plentifully with timber and other wood. Silk is ſo plentifully produced, beſides what is imported, as to afford a conſiderable trade. The cattle and horſes are neither very numerous nor very good; but it has many flocks of fine ſheep; yet ſo great is the conſumption, that both ſheep and wool are imported. The province of Gatinois produces great quantities of ſaffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gaſcony, and other provinces of France, are ſo well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that though they differ very ſenſibly in their taſte and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly thoſe of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Fontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac: and there are few conſtitutions, be they ever ſo valetudinary, to which ſome one or other of them is not adapted.

Wine, the ſtaple, is made to the value of 15,000,000l. annually, more than an eighth part of which, beſides brandy and vinegar, was exported. Olive oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the provinces next the Mediterranean; but the conſumption is ſo great, that much of it is imported from Italy; the inferior ſort ſupplies the ſoap manufactories, of which there are thirty-ſix at Marſeilles.

Oak, elm, aſh, and other timber, common in England, is found in France; but it is ſaid, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of ſalt is made at Rhée, and about Roche-

fort, on the coaſt of Saintonge. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-aſhes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at preſent far inferior to the Engliſh both in the management and diſpoſition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux, and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horſes, black cattle, and ſheep, are far inferior to the Engliſh; nor is the wool of their ſheep ſo fine. The hair and ſkin of the chamois, or mountain-goats, are more valuable than thoſe of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and thoſe of England, but that the former is not ſo well ſerved, even on the ſea-coaſt, with ſalt-water fiſh. There is a conſiderable herring fiſhery, and one for anchovies, to the annual amount of 83,000l. beſides more important fiſheries upon the coaſt of America and Newfoundland.

Forests.] The chief foreſts of France are thoſe of Orléans, which contains 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, aſh, &c. and the foreſt of Fontainbleau, near as large; and near Morchiſmoir is a foreſt of tall, ſtraight timber, of 4000 trees. Beſides theſe, large numbers of woods, ſome of them deſerving the name of foreſts, lie in different provinces; but too remote from ſea-carriage to be of much national utility.

Population, inhabitants, manners, customs, and diversions. } According to the lateſt and beſt calculations, France contained at the commencement of the revolution about 25,000,000 of inhabitants. It was lately ſuppoſed, by ſome ſpeculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline; but, upon an accurate inveſtigation, the reverſe appeared to be the fact; though this country certainly loſt a great number of valuable inhabitants by the revocation of the edict of Nantes*.

The French, in their perſons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations, in general, from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their ſprightly wit than perſonal beauty: the peaſantry in general are remarkably ordinary, and are beſt deſcribed by being contraſted with women of the ſame rank in England. The nobility and gentry accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding, in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry, before the revolution, had left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb bridle in that exerciſe, and accommodate themſelves to the Engliſh manners.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the ſubject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character: and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakneſs. It ſupports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inſpires other nations. This character has been conſpicuous both in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; and in the

* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a proteſtant, and juſtly ſtyled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, paſſed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured the proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; but his edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the ſucceeding perſecutions, drove thoſe people to England, Holland, and other proteſtant countries, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufacture, to the great prejudice of the country that perſecuted them.

common ſoldiers of France, who, it muſt confeſſed, in the preſent war againſt the allied powers, have exhibited prodigies of valour.

The French affect freedom and wit; but faſhionable dreſſes and diverſions engroſs too much of their converſation. Their diverſions are much the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh; but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into groſs foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the ſeeming levities of both ſexes are ſeldom attended with that criminality, which, to people not uſed to their manners, they ſeem to indicate; nor are the huſbands ſo indifferent as we are apt to imagine about the conduct of their wives. The French are exceſſively credulous and litigious: but of all people in the world they bear adverſity and reduction of circumſtances with the beſt grace; though in proſperity many of them are apt to be inſolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious.

The French have been much cenſured for inſincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their exceſs of civility, which renders their candour ſuſpicious. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable qualities; and a great number of inſtances of generoſity and diſintereſtedneſs may be found amongſt them.

It is doing the French no more than juſtice to acknowledge, that, as they are themſelves polite, ſo they have given a poliſh to the ferocious manners and even virtues of other nations. Before the revolution, they were diſpoſed to think very favourably of the Engliſh. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addiſon, Hume, Robertſon, Richardſon, and many others of the laſt and preſent century, are ſacred among the French of any education.

With ſeveral defects, the French have many good qualities; politeneſs of manners, attention to ſtrangers, and a general taſte for literature among thoſe in the better ranks of life.

Dress.] The French dreſs of both ſexes is ſo well known, that it is needleſs to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dreſs in cities and towns is ſo variable, that is next to impoſſible to deſcribe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their conſtantly changing their faſhions is of infinite ſervice to their manufactures.

Religion.] By the laws of the conſtitution, framed by the firſt national aſſembly, no man was to be moleſted for his opinions, or interrupted in the exerciſe of his religion. The territorial poſſeſſions of the Gallican church were claimed as national property, and diſpoſed of through the medium of a paper money, called aſſignats, for the creditors of the ſtate; and the clergy made dependent upon penſionary eſtabliſhments, paid out of the national treaſury; out of which was alſo paid the expenſes of worſhip, the religious, and the poor. All monaſtic eſtabliſhments were ſuppreſſed; but the friars and nuns were allowed to obſerve their vows, and nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or retire upon penſions.

By the ſubſequent conſtitutions, it is declared that there is no predominant religion in France, and that none is patroniſed or paid by the ſtate, but that all ſects and modes of worſhip ſhall enjoy equal toleration. The clergy are obliged to take an oath to obſerve the laws of the conſtitution*. They notify to the biſhop of Rome their union in doc-

* Many of the clergy, called refractory prieſts, from a conſcientious refuſal of this oath, have been ejected from their benefices, and many of the popular curates made biſhops.

trine, but do not pay him fees, or acknowledge any ſubordination to his authority. They vote as active citizens, and are eligible to ſome lay-offices in the diſtricts, but to no principal ones.

ARCHBISHOPRICS, BISHOPRICS, &c.] France, under the late monarchical government, contained eighteen archbiſhoprics, and one hundred and nine biſhoprics. By the firſt national aſſembly it was divided into nine metropolitan circles, having a METROPOLITAN BISHOP, with a ſynod in each, beſides one for Paris. The metropolitan biſhop is confirmed by the eldeſt biſhop in his circle. Appeals are made from the biſhops to their ſynods.

A BISHOP was appointed to each of the eighty-three *departments*, which form ſo many dioceſes. They were appointed by the electoral aſſembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan biſhop, but muſt have held an eccleſiaſtical office fifteen years. The ſalaries were from 500l. to 840l. per annum. Each dioceſe has alſo a *ſeminary*, with three vicars, and a vicar-general, to prepare ſtudents for holy orders; and theſe vicars form a council for the biſhop.

VICARS of biſhops are choſen by the biſhop from among the clergy of his dioceſe who have done duty ten years.

MINISTERS of pariſhes or *curés* in the diſtricts are confirmed by the biſhop, and they muſt have been vicars to miniſters five years.

VICARS of miniſters are choſen by the miniſter from among the prieſts admitted in the dioceſe by the biſhop.

France contains more than two millions of non-catholics; and the *proteſtants*, who are greatly increaſing, are, in proportion to the catholics, as one to twelve. There are already many regular congregations, viz. German Lutherans, French and Swiſs Calviniſts, Bohemian anabaptiſts, and Walloon or Flemiſh diſſidents, beſides many chapels for the ambaſſadors. It alſo contains many Jews.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wiſeſt meaſures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every propoſal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He ſucceeded ſo far as to render it the moſt univerſal of all the living tongues; a circumſtance that tended equally to his greatneſs and his glory; for his court and nation thereby became the ſchool of arts, ſciences, and politeneſs. The French is chiefly compoſed of words radically Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay: its corner-ſtones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are, as it were, looſened; and, in the preſent mode of writing and expreſſing themſelves, the modern French too often diſregard that purity of expreſſion which alone can render a language claſſical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the Engliſh: but they are well adapted to ſubjects void of elevation or paſſion; and well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common converſation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows:—*Nôtre Père, qui es aux cieux, ton nom ſoit ſanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté ſoit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui nôtre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offenſés. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi eſt le regne, la puiſſance, et la gloire aux ſiécles des ſiécles.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immerſed in barbarity. The firſt learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which im-

proves the underſtanding, corrects the taſte, or regulates the affections. It conſiſted in a ſubtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the ſtudy of the Greek and Roman writers, which firſt aroſe in Italy, diffuſed itſelf among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary purſuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings; among whom were Budæus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are alſo mentioned by every real ſcholar with reſpect. It was not, however, till the ſeventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Académie Françoiſe was formed for this purpoſe: and though their labours, conſidered as a body, were not ſo ſucceſsful as might have been expected, ſome particular academicians have done great ſervice to letters. In fact, literary copartnerſhips are ſeldom very ſucceſsful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the preſent caſe. The Academy publiſhed a dictionary for improving the French language, which was univerſally deſpiſed; Furetières, a ſingle academician, publiſhed another, that met with univerſal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Auguſtus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the penſions he beſtowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterpriſes upon which he expended ſo many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign are too numerous to be mentioned. The tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deſervedly obtained a very high reputation: the firſt was diſtinguiſhed for ſkill in moving the paſſions; the ſecond, for majeſty; and both, for the ſtrength and juſtneſs of their painting, the elegance of their taſte, and their ſtrict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhauſted the ſubjects of comedy, were they not every-where inexhauſtible, and particularly in France. In works of ſatire and criticiſm, Boileau, who was a cloſe imitator of the ancients, poſſeſſed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the ſame extenſive and univerſal kind with Shakſpeare, equally fitted for the gay and the ſerious, the humorous and the ſublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our ſuperiors; Boſſuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Maſſillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to ſurpaſs. The genius, however, of their religion and government was extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the moſt uſeful branches of philoſophy. All the eſtabliſhments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of ſcience, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whoſe intereſt it was to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and miniſtry, who had an equal intereſt in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every ſound principle of government. The French have not therefore ſo many good writers on moral, religious, or political ſubjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced ſome great men, who do honour to humanity; whoſe career no obſtacle could ſtop; whoſe freedom no government, however deſpotic, no religion, how-

ever ſuperſtitious, could curb or reſtrain. As an hiſtorian, De Thou is entitled to the higheſt praiſe; and who is ignorant of Paſcal, or of the archbiſhop of Cambray? Few men have done more ſervice to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Monteſquieu, he is the legiſlator of nations: his works are read in every country and language; and wherever they are read, they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And indeed the diſtinguiſhed literary productions of the reign of Lewis XV. univerſally breathe ſentiments incompatible with ſuperſtition or deſpotiſm; but too many of them incur the oppoſite reproach of irreligion and licentiouſneſs.

In the belles lettres, the lighter kinds of poetry, and lively eſſays, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers: among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the moſt conſiderable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Deſcartes was the greateſt philoſopher in modern times. He was the firſt who applied algebra to the ſolution of geometrical problems; which naturally prepared the way for the analytical diſcoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flouriſhed in the preſent age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert; the latter of whom, to the preciſion of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the preſent century, the French have almoſt vied with the Engliſh in natural philoſophy. Buffon would deſerve to be reckoned among men of ſcience, were he not ſtill more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philoſophy. He is to be regarded as a philoſophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his Natural Hiſtory is the firſt work of its kind.

Their painters, Pouſſin, Le Brun, and, above all, Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at preſent to compare with them in the more noble kind of painting: but M. Greuſe, for portraits and converſation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better underſtood in France than in moſt other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper-plates have been univerſally and juſtly celebrated; but ſuch a liberal patronage has been afforded to Engliſh artiſts, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them alſo in the manufacture of paper proper for ſuch impreſſions. Their treatiſes on ſhip-building and engineering ſtand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the Engliſh. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our ſuperiors in architecture; though we now are their equals in this art.

The French Encyclopædia, firſt publiſhed in the latter years of Lewis XV. and now republiſhed in a new form, is, perhaps, the beſt dictionary of arts and ſciences ever compiled in any country.

UNIVERSITIES, PUBLIC COLLEGES, AND ACADEMIES. Before the revolution, there were in France twenty-eight univerſities or public colleges, as follow: Aix, Angers, Arles, Avignon, Beſançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpelier, Nantes, Orange, Orléans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont-à-Mouſſon, Richelieu, Rheims, Soiſſons, Straſbourg, Toulouſe, Tournon, and Valence. Among theſe, the Sorbonne at Paris was the moſt celebrated.

The following literary eſtabliſhments were ſupported out of the national treaſury: the French Academy, Academy of Belles Lettres, Academy of Sciences, Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Obſervatory, and the Free School of Deſign. Under the republic, primary,

central, and ſpecial ſchools have been eſtabliſhed; a primary ſchool for each canton, a central ſchool for each department, and ſpecial ſchools for the higher ſciences, ſuch as aſtronomy, and for thoſe arts which require a particular education for the public ſervice, ſuch as medicine and ſurgery. Education in theſe eſtabliſhments is at the public expenſe, but the ſcholars are maintained by their parents or friends.

An academy called the *National Inſtitute* has likewiſe being founded, the inſtallation of which took place in the hall of the former Academy of Sciences, in the palace of the National Muſeum, formerly the Louvre. It is compoſed of a hundred and forty-four members; among the firſt of whom were found the names of La Lande, La Place, Fourcroy, Reynel, Marmontel, Volney, Bertholet, Bitaube, &c. This national academy holds four public meetings in a year; its conferences point out and promote the progreſs of the arts and ſciences, but it has no authority whatever over the ſchools.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Few countries, if we except Italy, can boaſt of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts; and, conſequently, compared to them, thoſe of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a moſt curious account of the ſepulchres of their kings, which have been diſcovered ſo far back as Pharamond; and ſome of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be ſeen triumphal arches; but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and the Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus, After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and ſacred; ſome of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itſelf. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewiſe at Vienne. Niſmes, however, exhibits the moſt valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the Auguſtan age, by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between two mountains for the uſe of that city: it conſiſts of three bridges, or tiers of arches, one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Niſmes; but the chief are the temple of Diana, and the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fineſt and moſt entire of the kind of any in Europe; but, above all, the houſe erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maiſon Carrée. The architecture and ſculpture of this building are ſo exquiſitely beautiful, that it enchants even the moſt ignorant: and it is ſtill entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in la Rue de la Harpe, may be ſeen the remains of the Thermæ, ſuppoſed to have been built by the emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, about the year 356, after the ſame model as the baths of Diocleſian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large ſaloon. It is fabricated of a kind of maſtic, the compoſition of which is not now known, intermixed with ſmall ſquare pieces of free-ſtone and bricks. But the moſt extraordinary of all artificial curioſities is the ſubterraneous cavern at Paris. For the firſt building of that city, it was neceſſary to get the ſtone in the environs. As Paris was enlarged, the ſtreets and ſuburbs extended to and were built on the ancient quarries from which the ſtone had been taken; and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities which are found

under the houſes in ſeveral quarters of the city. Eight perſons ſome years ſince periſhed in one of them, a gulf of 150 feet deep, which excited the police and government to cauſe the buildings of ſeveral quarters to be privately propped up. All the ſuburbs of St. James's, Harpe-ſtreet, and even the ſtreet of Tournon, ſtand upon the ancient quarries; and pillars have been erected to ſupport the weight of the houſes; but as the lofty buildings, towers, and ſteeples, now tell the eye, that what is ſeen in the air is wanting under the feet, ſo it would not require a very violent ſhock to throw back the ſtones to the places from whence they were raiſed.

At Arles in Provence is an obeliſk of oriental granite, 52 feet high, and ſeven feet diameter at the baſe, and all but one ſtone. Roman temples and aqueducts are frequent in France. The moſt remarkable are in Burgundy and Guienne; the paſſage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiné is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of maſſy ſilver, taken out of the Rhône in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the ſtory of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coëval with that great general.

Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been before noticed. There are ſome ſubterraneous paſſages and holes, eſpecially at St. Aubin in Brittany, and Niont in Dauphiné, really ſtupendous.

Cities and towns.] Theſe are numerous in France; of which we ſhall mention only Paris, Liſle, and their principal ſea-ports, Breſt and Toulon.

Liſle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the moſt regular and ſtrongeſt fortification in Europe, and was the maſter-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garriſoned with above ten thouſand regulars: and, for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of ſilk, cambric, and camblets, are very conſiderable; and its inhabitants amount to about ſixty thouſand. Every reader is acquainted with the hiſtory of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demoliſh; but it is ſtill a thorn in the ſide of the Engliſh, by being a harbour for their ſmugglers. The reſt of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Proceeding ſouthward, we come to the Iſle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been ſo often deſcribed, that it may appear ſuperfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deſerves, to all the capitals in the world, in every reſpect, not excepting even population. Many of the Engliſh have been impoſed upon in this point; particularly by computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the moſt populous pariſhes about London. Another miſtake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of diſſenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not regiſter the births of their children, is very great; the regiſters of others are not known by the public; and many of the poorer ſort will not afford the ſmall expenſe of ſuch a regiſtering. Another peculiarity exiſting in London is, that many of the Londoners, who can afford the expenſe, when they find themſelves conſumptive, or otherwiſe indiſpoſed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris, therefore, where

the regiſters are more exact and acceſſible to the poor, and where the religion and the police were before the revolution more uniform and ſtrict, is far more eaſily aſcertained than that of London; and by the beſt accounts it does not exceed ſeven or eight hundred thouſand, which is far ſhort of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous pariſhes.

Paris is divided into three parts,—the city, the univerſity, and that which was formerly called the town. The city is old Paris; the univerſity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public magnificence than utility. Its palaces are ſhowy, and ſome of its ſtreets, ſquares, hotels, hoſpitals, and churches, ſuperbly decorated with a profuſion of paintings, tapeſtry, images, and ſtatues; but Paris, notwithſtanding its boaſted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniences of life, and the ſolid enjoyments of ſociety. Without entering into more minute diſquiſitions, Paris, it muſt be owned, is the paradiſe of ſplendour and diſſipation. The tapeſtry of the Gobelins* is unequalled for beauty and richneſs. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itſelf: it was adorned by many excellent inſtitutions for the arts and ſciences, particularly the three academies, and ennobled by the reſidence of the learned. The Tuilleries, the palace of Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are ſhown, the royal palace and library, the guild-hall, and the hoſpital for invalids, are ſuperb to the higheſt degree. The city of Paris is ſaid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French nobleſſe at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and ſo do their convents and churches. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes very high, many of them ſeven ſtories. The houſes are built of ſtone, and often contain a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half ſo large as the Thames at London; it is too far diſtant from the ſea for the purpoſes of navigation, and is not furniſhed, as the Thames, with veſſels or boats of any ſort; over it are many ſtone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The ſtreets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more ſhow than ſubſtance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of ſtrangers are moſtly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who viſit that city; and, in truth, the greateſt part of the trade of Paris ariſes from the conſtant ſucceſſion of ſtrangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This aſcendency is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapneſs of proviſions, excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all theſe advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a compariſon with London, in the more eſſential circumſtances of a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanneſs of their ſtreets, neatneſs of their houſes, eſpecially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which, it is ſaid, diſagrees with ſtrangers, as do likewiſe their ſmall wines. In the houſes of Paris moſt of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being ſprinkled with water, and ſwept once a day. Theſe brick floors, the ſtone

* One *Goblei*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the firſt who ſettled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the houſe has retained his name ever ſince: and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, eſtabliſhed that valuable manufactory.

ſtairs, the want of wainſcoting in the rooms, and the thick party walls of ſtone, are, however, good preſervatives againſt fire, which ſeldom does any damage in this city. Inſtead of wainſcoting, the walls are covered with tapeſtry or damaſk. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with teſter and curtains. Their ſhops are but poorly ſtored with goods; and the ſhop-keepers and tradeſmen are an indolent, loitering people. There is a remarkable contraſt between this claſs of perſons and thoſe of the ſame rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do moſt of the drudgery buſineſs of the ſhop, while the huſband loiters about, talks of the great, of faſhions and diverſions, and the invincible force of their armies. The ſplendour of the grand monarque uſed to be alſo with them a favourite topic of converſation, previous to the change in their political ſyſtem. The Pariſians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is conſidered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers' meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the ſummer ſeaſon, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and ſmall wine. The Pariſians, till lately, ſcarcely knew the uſe of tea; but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris uſed to be ſo well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, ſeldom happened; and ſtrangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever ſo uncommon, met with the moſt polite treatment. The ſtreets were patrolled at night by horſe and foot; ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, that no offender could eſcape their vigilance. They likewiſe viſited the publicans preciſely at the hour of twelve at night, to ſee that the company were gone; for in Paris no liquor could be had after that time. The public roads in France were under the ſame excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevented robberies in that kingdom; but, for the ſame reaſon, when robberies did happen, they were always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, Great Britain excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleaſant, and contain a number of fine ſeats, ſmall towns, and villages; ſome of them, being ſcattered on the edges of hills riſing from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Verſailles, which ſtands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expenſive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furniſh, is a collection of buildings, each of exquiſite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and ſublime of that art. The gardens, and water-works (which are ſupplied by means of prodigious engines, acroſs the Seine at Marli, about three miles diſtance), are aſtoniſhing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a ſtranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taſte and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amuſement of that luxurious court which lately occupied them; but ſome of them are in a ſhameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanlineſs.

Breſt is a ſmall but very ſtrong town, upon the Engliſh channel, with a moſt ſpacious and finely fortified road and harbour, the beſt and ſafeſt in all the kingdom; yet its entrance is difficult, by reaſon of many rocks lying under water. At Breſt there was a court of admiralty, an academy for ſea affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval ſtores, rope-yards, ſtore-houſes, &c. inſomuch that it may be termed the

capital receptacle for the navy of France, for which it is admirably well adapted.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a ſea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour for the reception and protection of the navy. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and, by means of a canal, ſhips paſs from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour. Its arſenal, eſtabliſhed alſo by that king, has a particular ſtore-houſe for each ſhip of war; its guns, cordage, &c. being ſeparately laid up. Here are ſpacious workſhops, for blackſmiths, joiners, carpenters, lockſmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of ſtone, is 320 toiſes or fathoms in length, with three-arched walks. Its general magazine ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtore-houſes, and contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. juſtly ſtyled the Great, the famous Colbert, miniſter to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illuſtrious a figure as a trading, as ſhe did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally poſſeſs that undaunted perſeverance which is neceſſary for commerce and coloniſation, though no people, in theory, underſtand them better. It is to be conſidered at the ſame time, that France, by her ſituation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happineſs of her ſoil, muſt be always poſſeſſed of great inland and neighbouring trade.

The ſilk manufacture was introduced into France ſo late as the reign of Henry IV; and in the age of his grandſon Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulſion of the proteſtants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreaſed to 4000; and their ſilk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French proteſtants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. Next to Tours and Lyons, Paris, Chatillon, and Niſmes, are moſt celebrated for ſilk manufactures. France before the revolution contained 1,500 ſilk mills, 21,000 looms for ſtuffs, 12,000 for ribbons and lace, 20,000 for ſilk ſtockings, all of which employed two millions of people. They alſo manufacture gloves and ſtockings from ſpider-ſilk. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and ſtuffs, more eſpecially at Abbeville, Amiens, and Paris, are ſaid to be now little inferior to thoſe of England, and have greatly injured them, particularly in the Turkiſh market, aſſiſted by the clandeſtine importation of Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and workmen from this country.

In manufactures, the French have always been diſtinguiſhed for their invention, and the Engliſh for their ſuperior improvement. Abbeville is famous for cloth, linen, ſail-cloth, and ſoap; Auvergne for fine thread, lace, ſtuffs, and paper; Niſmes for fine ſerges; Cambray for cambrics; St. Quentin for lawns; and Picardy for plate glaſs.

The diſtricts adjoining the Britiſh channel contain many ſheep of the Engliſh breed, which are ſaid to degenerate by removal from their native ſoil.

Beſides the infinite advantage ariſing to her inland commerce, from her rivers, navigable canals, and a connection with two ſeas, her foreign trade before the revolution might be ſaid to extend itſelf all over the globe. It

is a doubtful point whether France was a loſer by its ceſſion of Canada and part of Louiſiana by the peace of 1763. But the iſland of St. Domingo, of which ſhe long poſſeſſed the moſt valuable part, and now has the whole, ceded to her by the late treaty with Spain, is a moſt improvable acquiſition, and the moſt valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the Weſt Indies, ſhe likewiſe held, till the preſent war, the important ſugar iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante. Her poſſeſſions in North America are only a ſmall tract upon the Miſſiſſippi.

The French poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies were never very conſiderable; but ſuch as they are, they are now in the hands of the Engliſh.

Mr. Anderſon gives the following account of the trade of France before the revolution: "Her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—to Germany, through Metz and Straſbourg—to the Netherlands, through Liſle—to Spain (a moſt profitable one), through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the Channel, and on the Weſtern Ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more eſpecially reſpecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marſeilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very conſiderable. The negro trade from Guinea ſupplies her ſugar colonies, beſides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence."

The exports are wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, ſilks, ſatins, linens, woollen cloth, tapeſtries, laces, gold and ſilver embroideries, toys, trinkets, perfumery, paper, prints, books, drugs, dyes, &c. The imports are hardware, earthen ware, cottons, metals, hemp, flax, ſilk, wool, horſes, Eaſt and Weſt India goods, &c. Before the revolution it employed one million tons of ſhipping, with near 50,000 ſeamen; the imports were valued at 9,583,333l. the exports at 12,500,000l. and it had a *balance* of trade of more than two millions in its favour; but its trade and manufactures have ſince greatly declined.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] It has no trading companies (having aboliſhed all monopolies) but a bank or *caiſſe d'eſcompte*, and a bank of extraordinaries. A plan has lately been propoſed for eſtabliſhing a bank ſimilar to that of England; but it will probably meet the fate of all former plans of the ſame nature.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] France, by the revolution in 1789, founded a *new conſtitution*, upon the principle that all men are free, and equal in their rights. After the death of the king, in the year 1793, another conſtitution was framed, and adopted, which was again ſucceeded by another, uſually called *the conſtitution of the third year*. By this conſtitution the government was veſted in a directory of five members, and a legiſlative body compoſed of a council of ancients, of two hundred and fifty members, and a council of five hundred.

But in November, 1799, this conſtitution was likewiſe overthrown, and a new form of government erected, conſiſting of what is called a conſervative ſenate of eighty members; a tribunate of one hundred; a legiſlative body of three hundred; and three conſuls, nominated for ten years, and indefinitely re-eligible. The firſt conſul poſſeſſes ſuch attributes, and exerciſes ſuch functions, as give him the moſt ample power; and this office is now held by general Buonaparte, the author of this revolution and conſtitution. How long this form of government may remain unaltered by a new revolution, among this mutable and violent people, time muſt diſcover.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the ſoil of France; her numerous manufactures and extenſive commerce; her great cities, her numerous towns, ſea-ports, rivers, and canals; the cheapneſs of proviſions, wines and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets ſhe has ſent forth, to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their ſprightlineſs and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude that her people are the moſt opulent and happy in Europe. The reverſe, however, appears to be the ſtate of that nation at preſent; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

The moſt obvious cauſes of this national poverty took their riſe from the ambition and vanity of their kings and courtiers, which led them into ſchemes of univerſal dominion, the aggrandiſement of their name, and the enſlaving of Chriſtendom. Their wars, which they ſometimes carried on againſt one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the ſubject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free-gifts, &c. When theſe failed, other methods, more deſpotic and unwarrantable, ſuch as raiſing and reducing the value of money as it ſuited their own purpoſes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppreſſions, were adopted, which gave the finiſhing blow to public credit, and ſhook the foundations of trade, commerce, and induſtry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we conſider the motives of theſe wars, a deſire to enſlave and render miſerable the nations around them, that man muſt be devoid of humanity whoſe breaſt is not raiſed with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been ſpilt, the miſeries and deſolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a ſacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, that, while they thus graſp after foreign conqueſt, their country exhibits a picture of miſery and beggary. Their towns, very few excepted, make a moſt diſmal and ſolitary appearance. The ſhops are mean beyond deſcription. That this is the appearance of their towns, and many of their cities, we may appeal to the obſervation of any one who has been in that kingdom. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and moſt extenſive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidſt this profuſion of plenty, the peaſant and his family barely exiſted upon the gleanings, exhibiting a ſpectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to ſee him ploughing the ground with a lean cow, aſs, and a goat yoked together, excited in an Engliſh traveller that pity to which human-nature is entitled. The French peaſant is now become a citizen; but time muſt decide whether his ſituation be eſſentially and permanently amended.

Revenues.] Some authors make the amount of the aſſeſſed taxes for the year 1792 only 300,000,000 livres, equal to 12,500,000l. ſterling, and, with the incidental taxes, in all 15,500,000l. ſterling—near nine millions leſs than before the revolution, when the nobleſſe and clergy were exempted.

All exciſes and exciſemen, tythes, and game laws, are now aboliſhed, and the roads maintained at public expenſe.

The Revenue in the year 1788, before the revolution, was 20 millions and a half ſterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half.

The extraordinary expenſes of the war carried on by the republic have

been principally defrayed by the ſeizure of church lands, confiſcations, requiſitions and contributions impoſed on the conquered countries, which are very different from permanent revenue.

In the year 1797, Gilbert, a member of the council of five hundred, ſtated the revenue for the 6th year at 479,593,579 livres, or 19,980,000l. ſterling.

On the 13th of October, 1799, the executive directory ſent a meſſage to the council of five hundred, ſtating the amount of the receipts of the 7th year of the republic at 476,000,000 livres, or ſomewhat above 19,800,000l. ſterling. The expenſes of the year they ſtated, at the ſame time, at 726,000,000 livres; or 30,250,000l ſterling.

The public DEBT, 1784, was £. 141,666,000.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better underſtood than in France. Beſides other methods for cultivating it, there was a royal military academy eſtabliſhed purpoſely for training up 500 young gentlemen at a time, in the ſeveral branches of this great art.

ARMY.] The peace eſtabliſhment of the *army*, for the year 1792, was,

| | |
|---|---|
| Infantry, | 111,000 |
| Cavalry, | 30,000 |
| Artillery, | 11,000 |
| Total, | 152,000 |

Theſe are called *troops of the line*, and, along with the volunteer national guards, formed an army, on the frontiers, of 224,000 men.

The *municipal army*, or national guards, are a kind of embodied militia for the interior defence of the kingdom, and amount to between three and four millions.

The *gendarmerie* are an auxiliary body of troops for the protection of laws and police.

This was the eſtabliſhment before the war; but ſince the attack made upon the French by the allied powers, the number of troops they have brought into the field almoſt exceeds belief. In the year 1794, they had 780,000 effective men in arms; which force was diſtributed as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| The army of the north, | 220,000 |
| The united armies of the Rhine and Moſelle, | 280,000 |
| The army of the Alps, | 60,000 |
| The army of the eaſtern Pyrenees, | 80,000 |
| The army of the ſouth, | 60,000 |
| The army of the weſt, | 80,000 |
| Total, | 780,000 |

NAVY.] The report of the miniſter, towards the cloſe of the year 1791, ſtates the ſhips in good condition to be eighty-ſix of the line, and ſeventy-eight frigates, beſides fireſhips, corvettes, galleys, and cutters. But the repeated victories of the Engliſh by ſea, in the courſe of the preſent war, have now extremely reduced, and, indeed, nearly annihilated, the navy of France.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. } The NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, deſirous of eſtabliſhing the French

conſtitution on the principles it has declared, aboliſhed, irrevocably, thoſe inſtitutions which are injurious to liberty and equality of rights.

There is no longer any *nobility*, nor *peerage*, nor *hereditary diſtinctions*, nor *difference of orders*, nor *feudal government*, nor *patrimonial juriſdiction*, nor any of the *titles*, *denominations*, and *prerogatives*, which are derived from them; nor any of the orders of *chivalry*, *corporations*, or *decorations*, for which proofs of nobility were required; nor any kind of ſuperiority but that of public functionaries in the exerciſe of their functions.

Royalty, which was one branch of the ancient conſtitution, is now aboliſhed, and the unfortunate monarch decapitated.

History.] The hiſtory of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly intereſting to an Engliſh reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Italian ſide of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it ſoon became a deſirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave reſiſtance, was annexed to their empire, by the invincible arms of Julius Cæſar, about forty-eight years before Chriſt. Gaul continued in the poſſeſſion of the Romans, till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themſelves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of juriſprudence better than their neighbours. Theſe Salii had a rule, which the reſt of the Franks are ſaid to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the ſucceſſion of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of ſovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic Law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after eſtabliſhing their power, and reducing the original natives to a ſtate of ſlavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and ſucceeding kings found it neceſſary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments, until they at length aſſumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave riſe to thoſe numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the ſeveral parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raiſed, without the concurrence of the grand council, conſiſting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the diſſolution of the Roman empire, the firſt government in France ſeems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumſcribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The firſt Chriſtian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the beſt French hiſtorians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481, and was baptiſed, and introduced Chriſtianity, in the year 496; the mind of Clovis had been affected by the pathetic tale of the paſſion and the death of Chriſt: and, inſenſible of the beneficial conſequences of the myſterious ſacrifice, he exclaimed, with religious fervour, "Had I been preſent with my valiant Franks, I would have revenged his injuries!" But though he publicly profeſſed to acknowledge the truth of the goſpel, its divine precepts were but little reſpected. From this period the French hiſtory exhibits a ſeries of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domeſtic broils, or foreign wars. The firſt race of their kings,

prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of thoſe dark ages, became maſter of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire, by will, among his ſons; which proved fatal to his family and poſterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was perſuaded to profeſs himſelf a Chriſtian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France, which afterwards gave a king to England, in the perſon of William duke of Normandy, who ſubdued Harold, the laſt Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almoſt perpetual wars with England, for which it was not an equal match, notwithſtanding its numbers, and the aſſiſtance it received from Scotland.

The rage of cruſading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite ſervice to the French crown, in two reſpects: in the firſt place it carried off many thouſands of its turbulent ſubjects, and their leaders, who were almoſt independent of the king: in the next, the king ſucceeded to the eſtates of many of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But, paſſing over the dark ages of the cruſades, their expedition to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we ſhall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe, in the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to exceſs in his own perſon, and had defeated the Swiſs, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but loſt the imperial crown—Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and king of Spain, being choſen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain, near Calais, where they and their attendants diſplayed their magnificence, with ſuch emulation and profuſe expenſe, as gave it the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Feats of chivalry, parties of gallantry, together with ſuch exerciſes and paſtimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than ſerious buſineſs, occupied both courts during eighteen days that they continued together*. Francis made ſome ſucceſsful expeditions againſt Spain, but ſuffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuſe his power: by which he diſobliged the conſtable of Bourbon, the greateſt of his ſubjects, who joined in a

* The French and Engliſh hiſtorians deſcribe the pomp of this interview, and he various ſpectacles, with great minuteneſs. One circumſtance mentioned by the matre ſchal de Fleuranges, who was preſent, and which appears ſingular in the preſent age, is commonly omitted. "After the tournament," ſays he, "the French and Engliſh wreſtlers made their appearance, and wreſtled in preſence of the kings and the ladies; and as there were many ſtout wreſtlers there, it afforded excellent paſtime; but as the king of France had neglected to bring any wreſtlers out of Bretagne, the Engliſh gained the prize.—After this the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together, and the king of England ſeizing the king of France by the collar, ſaid, "*My brother, I muſt wreſtle with you*," and endeavoured once or twice to trip up his heels; but the king of France, who was a dexterous wreſtler, twiſted him round, and threw him on the earth with prodigious violence. The king of England wanted to renew the combat, but was prevented."—*Memoires de Fleuranges*, 12mo. Paris, 1753, p. 329.

confederacy againſt him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In his adventurous expedition into Italy, he was taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to diſhonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of thoſe conditions was afterwards the ſource of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithſtanding the variety of diſagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flouriſhing condition. Francis I. was ſucceeded by his ſon Henry II. who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was ſo well ſerved by the duke of Guiſe, that, though he loſt the battle of St. Quentin againſt the Spaniards and the Engliſh, he retook Calais from the latter, who never ſince had any footing in France. He married his ſon the dauphin to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this ſcheme, he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomery.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon, Francis II. a weak, ſickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whoſe power was entirely engroſſed by a prince of the houſe of Guiſe, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engroſſment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a ſtrong oppoſition againſt the government. Antony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guiſes, the confederacy, which had adopted the cauſe of Huguenotiſm, was broken in pieces, when the ſudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under ſentence of death for a conſpiracy againſt the court; but the queen-mother ſaved him, to balance the intereſt of the Guiſes; ſo that the ſole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her ſecond ſon, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued ſeries of diſſimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guiſe, who was the ſcourge of the proteſtants, was aſſaſſinated by one Poltrot, at the ſiege of Orléans; and the murderer was unjuſtly thought to have been inſtigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the proteſtant party. Three civil wars ſucceeded. At length the court pretended to grant the Huguenots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a proteſtant, and the French king's ſiſter. The heads of the proteſtants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if poſſible, in one night. The project proved but too ſucceſsful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himſelf aſſiſted in the maſſacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The ſignal for the inhuman ſlaughter of ſo many thouſands was to be made by ſtriking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidſt the general carnage, that ſome few moments ſhould be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to reſt, when he was arouſed by the noiſe of the aſſaſſins, who had ſurrounded his houſe. A German, named Beſme, entered his chamber; and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that

fortitude which had ever diſtinguiſhed him. Incapable of reſiſtance, from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to aſſaſſinate him, with an undiſmayed countenance, he had ſcarce uttered the words "Young man, reſpect theſe grey hairs, nor ſtain them with blood," when Beſme plunged his ſword into his boſom, and, with his barbarous aſſociates, threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guiſe contemplated it in ſilence; but Henry, count d'Angoulême, natural brother to Charles, ſpurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friends! we have begun well; let us finiſh in the ſame manner." It is ſaid that about 30,000 proteſtants were murdered at Paris, and other parts of France: and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a freſh peace was concluded in 1573 with the proteſtants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had ſome time before been choſen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he with ſome difficulty eſcaped to France, where he took quiet poſſeſſion of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time ſupplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had loſt. The heads of the proteſtants could raiſe armies of Huguenots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were ſo equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the ſcale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guiſe. The proteſtants, under the prince of Condé and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called the German princes to their aſſiſtance; and a ſixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon, declaring himſelf lord of the Netherlands. The civil war was finiſhed within the year, by another pretended peace. The king, from his firſt acceſſion to the crown, had plunged himſelf into a courſe of infamous debauchery and religious extravagances. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he poſſeſſed natural good ſenſe. He began to ſuſpect that the proſcriptions of the proteſtants, and the ſetting aſide from the ſucceſſion the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guiſe, the idol of the Roman-catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had ſome diſtant pretenſions. To ſecure himſelf on the throne, a ſeventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the diſadvantage of the proteſtants, through the abilities of the duke of Guiſe. The king thought him now ſo dangerous, that, after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he, and his brother the cardinal, were, by his majeſty's orders, and in a manner under his eyes, baſely aſſaſſinated in 1588. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himſelf into the arms of the proteſtants; but while he was beſieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greateſt force, he was in his turn aſſaſſinated by one Clement, a young enthuſiaſtic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of hiſtory are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre *, head of

* A ſmall kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greateſt part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predeceſſors had been unjuſtly diſpoſſeſſed by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

the houſe of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Maine, brother to the late duke of Guiſe; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle of the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Their party being ſtrongly ſupported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, ſeemed only to make him more illuſtriouſly unfortunate: for he and his little court were ſometimes without common neceſſaries. He was, however, perſonally beloved; and no objection lay againſt him, but that of religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, ſplit among themſelves; and the French nation in general were jealous of the Spaniards. Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came ſecretly to a reſolution of declaring himſelf a Roman-catholic. This was called a meaſure of prudence, if not of neceſſity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Iſabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guiſe.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to maſs, as a mark of his converſion. This complaiſance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained abſolution from the pope, all France ſubmitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with; which he did for ſeveral years with various fortune. In 1598, he publiſhed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured to his old friends, the proteſtants, the free exerciſe of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chaſtiſed the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himſelf with wonderful attention and ſucceſs (aſſiſted in all his undertakings by his miniſter, the great Sully) to cultivate the happineſs of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of ſilk, the benefit of which France experiences at this day. Having reeſtabliſhed the tranquillity, and in a great meaſure ſecured the happineſs of his people, he formed connections with the neighbouring powers, for reducing the ambition of the houſe of Auſtria; for which purpoſe, it is ſaid, he had formed great ſchemes, and collected a formidable army; others ſay (for his intention does not clearly appear), that he deſigned to have formed Chriſtendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal paſſion for a favourite princeſs, whoſe huſband had carried her for protection into the Auſtrian dominions. Whatever may be in theſe conjectures, it is certain, that, while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was aſſaſſinated in his coach, in the ſtreets of Paris, by one Ravaillac, another young enthuſiaſt like Clement, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. ſon to Henry IV. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he diſcarded his mother and her favourites, and choſe for his miniſter the famous cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his reſolute and bloody meaſures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the religious eſtabliſhment of the proteſtants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's ſiſter, made ſome weak efforts, by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Hiſtorians ſay, that in theſe wars above a million of men loſt their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were ſpent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two

thouſand churches, two thouſand monaſteries, and ten thouſand houſes, were burnt or otherwiſe deſtroyed during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a maſterly train of politics, though himſelf bigoted to popery, ſupported the proteſtants of Germany, and Guſtavus Adolphus, againſt the houſe of Auſtria. After quelling all the rebellions and conſpiracies which had been formed againſt him in France, he died ſome months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his ſon, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the adminiſtration of his mother, Anne of Auſtria, by the factions of the great, and the diviſions between the court and parliament, for the moſt trifling cauſes, and upon the moſt deſpicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing ſtar; ſometimes a patriot, ſometimes a courtier, and ſometimes a rebel. He was oppoſed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a proteſtant had turned papiſt. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domeſtic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarin for her firſt miniſter, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell againſt the Spaniards, and to divide the domeſtic enemies of the court ſo effectually among themſelves, that when Lewis aſſumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himſelf the moſt abſolute monarch that had ever ſat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarin, to put the domeſtic adminiſtration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, in all of which he was extremely ſucceſsful.

To write the hiſtory of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis; through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs: by the latter he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation. By his impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes in the year 1685, and his perſecutions of the proteſtants, he obliged them to take ſhelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufacture, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was ſo blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himſelf the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his own conveniency, and at laſt raiſed againſt himſelf a confederacy of almoſt all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was ſo well ſerved, that he made head for ſome years againſt this alliance; but having provoked the Engliſh by his repeated infidelities, their arms under the duke of Marlborough, and the Auſtrians under the prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miſerable as the beginning of it had been ſplendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1712, was one continued ſeries of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expenſe of many thouſand lives. Juſt as he was reduced, old as he was, to the deſperate reſolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was ſaved, by the Engliſh Tory miniſtry deſerting the cauſe, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht in 1713. He ſurvived his deliverance but two years; and, in his laſt hours, diſplayed a greatneſs of mind worthy of his elevated ſituation: "Why do you weep?" ſaid he

to his domeſtics, "Did you think me immortal?" He died on the 1ſt of September, 1715, and was ſucceeded by his great-grandſon, Lewis XV.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been ſeized upon by the duke of Orléans, a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood, who having embroiled himſelf with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent, on the 5th of December, 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

Among the firſt acts of the government of Lewis XV. was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his firſt miniſter. Though his ſyſtem was entirely pacific, yet the ſituation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Staniſlaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed, through the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Staniſlaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorraine, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war againſt Great Britain, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whoſe ſullen mind, naturally unſettled, was inflamed by the diſputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the deſperate reſolution of attempting the life of his ſovereign. In the duſk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was ſuddenly wounded, though ſlightly, with a penknife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the preſence of his ſon, and in the midſt of his guards. The daring aſſaſſin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, but was inſtantly betrayed by his diſtracted countenance. He declared it was never his intention to kill the king; but that he only meant to wound him, that God might touch his heart, and incline him to reſtore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-eſtabliſhing the parliament, and baniſhing the archbiſhop of Paris, whom he regarded as the ſource of the preſent commotions. In theſe frantic and incoherent declarations he perſiſted, amidſt the moſt exquiſite tortures; and after human ingenuity had been exhauſted in deviſing new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with his obſtinacy, conſigned him to a death, the inhumanity of which is increaſed by the evident madneſs that ſtimulated him to the deſperate attempt, and which might fill the hearts of ſavages with horror; he was conducted to the common place of execution, amidſt a vaſt concourſe of the populace; ſtripped naked, and faſtened to the ſcaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming ſulphur; his thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, roſin, and ſulphur, were poured into the wounds; and, to complete the horrid cataſtrophe, he was torn to pieces by horſes.

The Jeſuits having rendered themſelves univerſally odious by their ſhare in the conſpiracy againſt the late king of Portugal, fell in France under the laſh of the civil power, for certain fraudulent mercantile tranſactions. They refuſed to diſcharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large ſum, and who was ſuppoſed to act for the benefit of the whole ſociety. As a monk, indeed, he muſt neceſſarily do ſo. The parliaments eagerly ſeized an opportunity of humbling their ſpiritual enemies. The Jeſuits were every-where cited before thoſe high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do juſtice to their creditors. They ſeemed to acquieſce in the deciſion, but delayed pay-

ment under various pretences. New ſuits were commenced againſt them in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the courſe of theſe proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were compelled to produce their *Inſtitute*, or the rules of their order, hitherto ſtudiouſly concealed. That myſterious volume, which was found to contain maxims ſubverſive of all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, completed their ruin. All their colleges were ſeized, all their effects confiſcated; and the king, aſhamed or afraid to protect them, not only reſigned them to their fate, but finally expelled them the kingdom by a ſolemn edict, and utterly aboliſhed the order of Jeſus in France.

Elated with this victory over eccleſiaſtical tyranny, the French parliaments attempted to ſet bounds to the abſolute power of the crown, and ſeemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not ſatisfied with refuſing, as uſual, to regiſter certain oppreſſive edicts, or with remonſtrating againſt them, they ordered criminal proſecutions to be commenced againſt the governors of ſeveral provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the regiſtration of thoſe edicts. The magnanimity of theſe aſſemblies had awakened new ideas in the boſoms of the French; they were taught by the late remonſtrances to conſider their inherent rights; and this flame, in the ſucceeding reign, burſt forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne of deſpotiſm.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainbleau in 1763, the chief events attending it, ſo humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corſica, a ſmall iſland in the Mediterranean, had long reſiſted with manly firmneſs the oppreſſive councils of the Genoeſe, who claimed the ſovereignty over it by right of conqueſt. But, unable to ſupport thoſe pretenſions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Lewis ſhould put her in full poſſeſſion of the adjacent iſland of Capraia, which the Corſicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engagements, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes and Toulon; twenty battalions of French were landed in Corſica; and the natives, whoſe free ſuffrages had ſummoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the ſupreme government of the iſland, determined to defend their liberties to the utmoſt.

A ſharp and bloody war, ſuch as ſuited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants and the nature of the country, was carried on in all the faſtneſſes and mountainous parts of the iſland; and it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two ſucceſſive campaigns, the enthuſiaſtic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that they overwhelmed, by their ſuperior numbers, this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis much reaſon to triumph in an acquiſition, to attain which he had ſacrificed ſeveral thouſands of his braveſt troops, and only extended his dominion over a rugged and unproductive iſland.

The late unfortunate king, Lewis XVI. ſucceeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. on the 10th of May, 1774. Several regulations were made after his acceſſion, highly favourable to the general intereſts of the nation, particularly the ſuppreſſion of the Mouſquetaires, and ſome other corps, which, being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal perſon than any real military ſervice, were ſupported at a great expenſe, without an adequate return of benefit to the ſtate. One remarkable circumſtance which attended this reign, was the placing of

M. Necker, a proteſtant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Poſſeſſed of diſtinguiſhed and acknowledged abilities, his appointment would have excited no ſurpriſe, had it not been contrary to the conſtant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of the revenue. Under the direction of Necker, a general reform took place in France, through every department in the revenue. When hoſtilities commenced, in 1777, between France and Great Britain, in conſequence of the aſſiſtance afforded by the former to the revolted Britiſh colonies in America, the people of France were not burthened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by the economy, improvements, and reformation, that were introduced into the management of the finances. In conſequence of this national economy, the navy of France was alſo raiſed to ſo great a height as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

Actuated by a laudable zeal to extend the limits of ſcience, Lewis fitted out ſeveral veſſels for aſtronomical diſcoveries. The chevalier de Borda was inſtructed to aſcertain the exact poſition of the Canary iſlands and Cape de Verd, and the different degrees of the coaſt of Africa, from Cape Spartel to the iſland of Gorée. The chevalier Grenier, who had traverſed the Indian ſeas to improve the charts and correct the errors of former navigators, was likewiſe liberally rewarded.

The viſit of the emperor of Germany to the court of Paris was another occurrence that excited the attention of Europe. He choſe to travel under the humble title of count Falkenſtein; he was received by Lewis with that reſpect which was due to the imperial dignity, and the regard that he was impatient to teſtify to the brother of his royal conſort. During ſix weeks that the emperor remained at Paris, his hours were inceſſantly devoted to examine the various eſtabliſhments of that capital, and in viewing the manufactures. With the ſame ſpirit of inquiry, he made a tour through the different provinces of the kingdom, and in his journey endeavoured to glean whatever might be advantageous to his own dominions.

Amidſt the fury of war, Lewis diſplayed a regard for ſcience. Previous to the commencement of hoſtilities, the Engliſh had ſent two veſſels into the South ſeas, commanded by captains Cook and Clerke, to explore the coaſts and iſlands of Japan and California; the return of thoſe veſſels was hourly expected in Europe; and Lewis, with a conſiderate humanity which reflects the higheſt honour on his character, by a circular letter to all his naval officers, commanded them to abſtain from all hoſtilities againſt theſe ſhips, and to treat them as neutral veſſels. The letters mentioned alſo, in terms of the greateſt reſpect, captain Cook, who had long diſtinguiſhed himſelf in ſucceſſive voyages of diſcovery. But death allowed not that celebrated navigator to enjoy this grateful teſtimony to his merit; for, in one of the newly-diſcovered iſlands, he had already fallen a victim to the blind fury of the ſavage inhabitants.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in conſequence of the repreſentations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unneceſſary offices in the houſehold of the queen were aboliſhed; and ſundry other important regulations adopted for the eaſe of the ſubject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he changed the exceſs of the diſburſements (at leaſt one million ſterling) of the year 1776, into an exceſs of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000l. But the meaſures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends

at court: the vain, the intereſted, and the ambitious naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have poſſeſſed ſufficient firmneſs of mind to ſupport an upright and able miniſter. He was therefore diſplaced, and is ſaid to have been particularly oppoſed by the queen's party.

The freedom of America had been the grand object of France; and that having been acknowledged in the fulleſt and moſt expreſs terms by Great Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were ſigned at Paris on the 20th of January, 1783; but the immenſe expenſes incurred were found at laſt to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means ſupport; and the miſerable exigencies to which government was reduced contributed no doubt to bring about the late revolution.

In the various wars of France with England, particularly in the laſt and preſent centuries, no object appeared of more conſequence to her naval operations than the obtaining a port in the Channel. With a view of obviating this want, the ableſt engineers in that kingdom have proceeded, by the moſt aſtoniſhing and ſtupendous works, to render the port of Cherbourg capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy. For ſeveral years after the laſt peace, they proſecuted this work at an annual expenſe of upwards of 200,000l.

In the year 1786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Verſailles, as we have already noticed in our account of England.

The ambition of the French government made its ſubjects acquainted with liberty, by aſſiſting the inſurgents in America and Holland, and excited a ſpirit amongſt the people, which could not well admit of the continuance of arbitrary power at home. The diſmiſſion of monſieur Necker from the direction of public affairs, and ſucceeding miniſters being endowed neither with his integrity nor abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being entirely ruined. When the edict for regiſtering the loan at the concluſion of 1785, which amounted to the ſum of three millions three hundred and thirty thouſand pounds, was preſented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonſtrances of that aſſembly, aſſumed a more legal and formidable form. The king, however, ſignified to the ſelect deputations that were commiſſioned to convey to him their remonſtrances, that he expected to be obeyed without farther delay. The ceremony of regiſtering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a reſolution, importing, that public economy was the only genuine ſource of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the neceſſity of the ſtate, and reſtoring that credit which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin.

This proceeding was no ſooner known, than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; he eraſed from their records the reſolution that had been adopted; and declared himſelf ſatisfied with the conduct of monſieur de Calonne, his comptroller-general.

However gratified by the ſupport of his ſovereign, monſieur de Calonne could not fail of feeling himſelf deeply mortified by the oppoſition of the parliament. An anxious inquiry into the ſtate of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues; in the preſent ſituation, to impoſe new taxes was impoſſible, to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous, and to have recourſe only to economical reforms would be found wholly inadequate; and

he hesitated not to declare, that it would be impossible to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state. To give weight to this reform, the minister was sensible that something more was necessary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom.

Under these circumstances, the only alternative that seemed to remain was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character, and that should consist, in a greater degree, of members from the various orders of the state, and the different provinces of the kingdom. But the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the states-general, had not met since the year 1614. Another assembly had occasionally been substituted in the room of the states-general;—this was distinguished by the title of the *notables*, or men of note, and consisted of a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the higher orders of the state, and nominated by the king himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry the Fourth, and again by Lewis the Thirteenth; and was now once more summoned by the authority of the present monarch; and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their opening.

It was under great difficulties that monsieur de Calonne first met the assembly of the notables, and opened his long expected plan. He began by stating, that the public expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenues; that a very considerable deficiency had of course existed; and, that, at his own accession to office, it was three millions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds.

To remedy this evil, the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land-tax, from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; and an inquiry into the possessions of the clergy, which hitherto had been exempted from bearing a proportion of the public burthens. The various branches of internal taxation were also to undergo a strict examination; and a considerable resource was presented in mortgaging the demesne lands of the crown.

Before monsieur Necker retired from the management of the finances, he had published his "Compte rendu au Roi," in which France was represented as possessing a clear surplus of four hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds sterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and had been considered as an æra in the history of France. The credit of this statement was ably vindicated by monsieur de Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse, and by the count de Mirabeau, a still more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have successfully vindicated his system and reputation against the calculations of Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau, but the genius of the comptroller-general sunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and essential object of reform was to equalise the public burthens, and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminish the load of the lower and most useful classes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public assessment; the crowds of new nobleſſe, who had purchased their patents, were by that shameful custom exempted, both themselves and their posterity, from contributing proportionably to the expenses of the state: the magistracies likewise throughout the kingdom enjoyed their share of exemptions: so that the whole weight of the taxes fell on those who were least able to

bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magiſtracy, were united againſt the miniſter; and the event was ſuch as might be expected. The intrigues of thoſe three bodies raiſed againſt him ſo loud a clamour, that, finding it impoſſible to ſtem the torrent, monſieur de Calonne not only reſigned his place on the 12th of April, but ſoon after retired to England from the ſtorm of perſecution.

The notables proceeded in their inquiries; and it was now ſuggeſted that an aſſembly of the ſtates ſhould be called, as the notables were not competent to impoſe a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in ſecret, this propoſal was inſtantly circulated through the capital, and ſuppoſed to be a new diſcovery. The notables were ſoon after diſſolved, without having accompliſhed any thing except the juſtification of monſieur Necker.

The ſtamp-act, however, was eſtabliſhed, and a bed of juſtice was held by the king on the 5th of Auguſt, 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend, and the edict was regiſtered, notwithſtanding their proteſt to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from ſubdued: on the day after the king had held his bed of juſtice, they entered a formal proteſt againſt the conceſſion that had been extorted from them.

Painful as every appearance of violence muſt have proved to the mild diſpoſition of Lewis, he could not conſent to ſurrender, without a ſtruggle, that authority which had been ſo long exerciſed by his predeceſſors. Since the commencement of the preſent diſcontents, the capital had been gradually filled with conſiderable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered the proteſt, an officer of the French guards, with a party of ſoldiers, went at break of day to the houſe of each individual member, to ſignify to him the king's command, that he ſhould immediately get into his carriage and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about ſeventy miles from Paris, without writing or ſpeaking to any perſon out of his own houſe before his departure. Theſe orders were ſerved at the ſame inſtant; and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the tranſaction, the parliament were already on the road to the ſcene of their baniſhment.

So great was the reſentment of the whole nation on account of the baniſhment of the parliament, that after a month's exile it was recalled. This was ſcarcely done, when they were deſired to regiſter a loan; at which they heſitated, notwithſtanding all the manœuvres of the miniſters. At laſt the king came to the houſe, and held what is called a royal ſeſſion. The edicts were now regiſtered; but the duke of Orléans proteſted, in the preſence of the king, againſt the legality of the proceeding. The parliament proteſted againſt the legality of the ſeſſion itſelf, but to no purpoſe. The duke of Orléans, with four others, were baniſhed; the king called for the journals of the houſe, deſtroyed the proteſt, and forbade it to be inſerted again. Great clamours were raiſed by the baniſhment of the duke of Orléans, and the other members of parliament; remonſtrances were preſented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes; but the exiles were not recalled till the ſpring of 1788.

No alternative remained now to Lewis, but to plunge his country into all the calamity of civil war, or to comply with the wiſhes of his people, and re-eſtabliſh the ſtates-general. In the firſt caſe, he muſt have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magiſtrates: the peers of the realm had expreſſed the ſtrongeſt diſapprobation of his meaſures, nor could he even depend any longer on the princes of his blood; but what afforded

moſt ſerious matter of alarm was the ſpirit lately diſplayed among the military, who, during the diſturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their ſwords againſt their countrymen; and many of thoſe officers, who had recently ſerved in America, publicly proclaimed their abhorrence of deſpotiſm.

It was under theſe impreſſions, in the beginning of Auguſt, an *arrêt* was publiſhed, which fixed the meeting of the ſtates-general to the firſt of May in the enſuing year, viz. 1789; at the ſame time every ſtep was taken to ſecure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the adminiſtration; and monſieur Necker, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been reſtricted in part, was entirely aboliſhed; every perſon accuſed was allowed the aſſiſtance of counſel, and permitted to avail himſelf of any point of law; and it was decreed, that, in future, ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed on any perſon, unleſs the party accuſed ſhould be pronounced guilty by a majority at leaſt of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the ſtates-general, or national aſſembly, whoſe re-eſtabliſhment, in the month of May, 1789, preſented a new æra in the government of France. But the moment of this meeting was far from auſpicious to the court, but greatly ſo to the intereſts of the nation. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the ſtates was extinguiſhed by the jarring pretenſions of each; and their mutual jealouſies were attributed by the ſuſpicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were ſuppoſed already to repent of the haſty aſſent that had been extorted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increaſed the general gloom and diſcontent; and the people, preſſed by hunger and inflamed by reſentment, were ripe for revolt. The ſovereign alſo, equally impatient of the obſtacles he inceſſantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again eſtabliſhed, and was attended by the immediate removal of monſieur Necker. This ſtep, which evinced a total change of reſolutions, and which, from the popularity of the miniſter, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in every order of men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The ſtates-general were driven into the Salle des Etats, where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who ſurrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court to proceed to greater extremities againſt the obnoxious repreſentatives of the nation.

Had theſe manifeſtations of vigour been only ſuſtained by inſtantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted, that, unprepared as it ſtill was, and unwilling to expoſe to the licence of an incenſed ſoldiery the lives and properties of its citizens, the capital would have been without difficulty reduced to obedience. But the delay which ſucceeded gave the inhabitants time to recover from their firſt emotions of ſurpriſe and apprehenſion. They ſaw the timidity and imbecility of the government, which, having founded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and paſſing from one extreme rapidly to another, they almoſt unanimouſly took up arms againſt their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who, from a long reſidence in the capital, had been peculiarly expoſed to ſeduction, and who at this deciſive moment abandoned their ſovereign, the Pariſians broke through every obſtacle by which they had hitherto been reſtrained. The ſupplies of arms and ammunition which had been provided

for their ſubjugation, were turned againſt the crown; and the Hôtel des Invalides, the great repoſitory of military ſtores, after a faint reſiſtance, ſurrendered.

The prince de Lambeſc, who alone, of all the officers commanding the royal troops in the vicinity of Paris, attempted to carry into execution the plan for diſarming the capital, was repulſed in a premature and injudicious attack, which he made at the head of his dragoons, near the entrance of the garden of the Tuilleries. Already the Prevôt des Marchands, monſieur de Fleſſelles, convicted of entertaining a correſpondence with the court, and detected in ſending private intelligence to monſieur de Launay, governor of the Baſtile, had been ſeized by the people, and fallen the firſt victim to general indignation. His head, borne on a lance, exhibited an alarming ſpectacle of the danger to which adherence to the ſovereign muſt expoſe in a time of anarchy and inſurrection.

The Baſtile alone remained; and while it continued in the power of the crown, Paris could not be regarded as ſecure from the ſevereſt chaſtiſement. It was inſtantly inveſted, on the 14th of July, 1789, by a mixed multitude, compoſed of citizens and ſoldiers who had joined the popular banner. De Launay, who commanded in the caſtle, by an act of perfidy unjuſtifiable under any circumſtances, and which rendered his fate leſs regretted, rather accelerated than delayed the capture of that important fortreſs. He diſplayed a flag of truce, and demanded a parley; but abuſing the confidence which theſe ſignals inſpired, he diſcharged a heavy fire from the cannon and muſquetry of the place upon the beſiegers, and made conſiderable carnage. Far from intimidating, he only augmented, by ſo treacherous a breach of faith, the rage of an incenſed populace. They renewed their exertions with a valour raiſed to frenzy, and were crowned with ſucceſs. The Baſtile, that awful engine of deſpotiſm, whoſe name alone diffuſed terror, and which for many ages had been ſacred to ſilence and deſpair, was entered by the victorious aſſailants. De Launay, ſeized and dragged to the Place de Grêve, was inſtantly diſpatched, and his head carried in triumph through the ſtreets of Paris.

In this priſon were found the moſt horrible engines for putting to the ſevereſt tortures thoſe unhappy perſons whom the cruelty or jealouſy of deſpotiſm had determined to deſtroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the ſkeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrid manſion. Among the priſoners releaſed by its deſtruction, were major White a Scotſman, earl Maſſarene an Iriſh nobleman, and the count de Lorges. The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almoſt totally impaired by the long confinement and miſeries he had endured; and, by being unaccuſtomed to converſe with any human creature, had forgotten the uſe of ſpeech. Earl Maſſarene, at his arrival on the Britiſh ſhore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and, kiſſing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bleſs this land of liberty!" The count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, was alſo liberated, and exhibited to the public curioſity in the Palais Royal. His ſqualid appearance, his white beard which deſcended to his waiſt, and, above all, his imbecility, reſulting probably from the effect of an impriſonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the ſenſes and paſſions of every beholder. It is indeed impoſſible not to participate in the exultation which a capital and a country, ſo long op-

preſſed, muſt have experienced at the extinction of this deteſtable and juſtly-dreaded priſon of ſtate.

With the Baſtile expired the deſpotiſm of the French princes, which long preſcription, ſubmiſſion, and military ſtrength, ſeemed to render equally ſacred and unaſſailable; which neither the calamities of the cloſe of Lewis XIV.'s reign, the profligacy and enormities of the ſucceeding regency, nor the ſtate of degradation into which the monarchy ſunk under Lewis XV. had ever ſhaken: that power, which appeared to derive its ſupport almoſt as much from the loyalty and veneration as from the dread and terrors of the ſubject, fell proſtrate in the duſt, and never betrayed any ſymptom of returning life.

The next morning after the capture of the Baſtile, the monarch appeared in the national aſſembly, but without the pomp and parade of deſpotiſm. His addreſs was affectionate and conſolatory. He lamented the diſturbances at Paris; diſavowed all conſciouſneſs of any meditated attack on the perſons of the deputies; and added, that he had iſſued orders for the immediate removal of the troops from the vicinity of the metropolis. The tear of ſympathy ſtarted into almoſt every eye. An expreſſive ſilence firſt pervaded the aſſembly, which preſently was ſucceeded by a burſt of applauſe and acclamation. On the 16th, the king having intimated to the national aſſembly his intention of viſiting Paris the following day, he accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, left Verſailles in a plain dreſs, and with no other equipage than two carriages with eight horſes each; in the firſt of which he rode himſelf; a part of the national aſſembly in their robes accompanied him on foot; and the militia of Verſailles compoſed his only guard till the proceſſion arrived at the Seve, where they were relieved by the Paris militia, with the marquis de la Fayette at their head: and from this place the ſuite of the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The progreſs was remarkably ſlow; and no ſhout was to be heard but *Vive la nation!* Mr. Bailly, on preſenting the keys of the city, addreſſed his majeſty in a ſhort ſpeech, the exordium of which was:—"Theſe, ſir, are the keys which were preſented to Henry IV. He came to re-conquer his people; it is our happineſs to have re-conquered our king." On receiving the complimentary addreſſes of the mayor, &c. the king exclaimed, with an air of pathetic emotion, which ſcarcely allowed him utterance, "My people may always rely upon my affection." He received from the hands of the mayor the national cockade; and when he ſhowed himſelf at the window with this badge of patriotiſm, the joy of the people could no longer be reſtrained; the ſhout of *Vive le Roi!* which had ſcarcely been heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole atmoſphere, and reſounded from one extremity of the city to the other. The return of the king to Verſailles was a real triumph. The citizens, almoſt intoxicated with joy, ſurrounded his carriage; his countenance, which in the morning bore the aſpect of melancholy, was now cheerful and ſmiling: and he appeared ſincerely to partake in the general ſatisfaction.

The events which followed, are, by the candid of all parties, allowed to be enveloped in an almoſt impenetrable veil of obſcurity. An incident which occurred at Verſailles contributed to excite a moſt unhappy commotion. On the 1ſt of October an entertainment was given by the gardes-du-corps, or king's body-guards, to the officers of a regiment of Flanders, who had juſt joined them in the ſervice of guarding the monarch. Several of the officers of the national guard, with others of the military, were invited. At the ſecond courſe, four toaſts were given:

" the king, the queen, the dauphin, and the royal family." " The nation" was propoſed, but, according to a number of witneſſes, expreſsly rejected by the gardes-du-corps. After this, the queen, having been informed of the gaiety of the ſcene, perſuaded his majeſty, who was juſt returned from hunting, to accompany her, with the heir apparent, to the ſaloon. She appeared with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as ſhe was lovely, and carried the royal infant through the ſaloon, amidſt the acclamations and murmurs of the ſpectators. Fired with enthuſiaſm, the ſoldiers drank the health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin, with their ſwords drawn; and the royal gueſts bowed reſpectfully and retired.

The entertainment, which had hitherto been conducted with ſome degree of order, now became a ſcene of entire confuſion. Nothing was omitted to inflame the paſſions of the military. The muſic played the favourite air—" O Richard, O my king, the world abandons thee!" the ladies of the court diſtributed *white cockades*, the anti-patriot enſign; and even ſome of the national guard, it is ſaid, had the weakneſs to accept them.

During theſe tranſactions the city of Paris was afflicted with all the evils of famine. At this juncture the news arrived of the fatal banquet at Verſailles, with every circumſtance greatly magnified. Early on the morning of the memorable 5th of October, a woman ſallied out from the quarter of St. Euſtache, and entering the corps-de-garde, and ſeizing a drum, paraded the adjacent ſtreets beating an alarm, and exciting the people by clamours reſpecting the ſcarcity of bread. She was ſoon joined by a very numerous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of 800, who proceeded to Verſailles, where the king, upon hearing their complaints, ſigned an order for bringing corn from Senlis and Lagni, and for removing every obſtacle which impeded the ſupply of Paris. This order was reported to the women, and they retired with gratitude and joy.

This band of Amazons were no ſooner diſperſed, than it was ſucceeded by another. The national aſſembly continued ſitting; but the ſeſſion was tumultuous, and interrupted by the ſhouts and harangues of the Pariſian fiſh-women, who filled the galleries; their applauſe was mingled with affecting murmurs and complaints, the multitude crying out that they were actually ſtarving, and that the majority of them had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The preſident therefore humanely ordered that proviſions ſhould be ſought for in every part of the town; and the hall of the aſſembly was the ſcene of a miſerable, ſcanty, and tumultuous banquet. Indeed, ſuch was the dreadful famine, that the horſe of one of the gardes-du-corps being killed in a tumult, he was immediately roaſted, and greedily devoured by the mob.

Darkneſs and a deluge of rain added to the horrors of the night. The wretched multitudes who had travelled from Paris, were expoſed, almoſt famiſhed, to the inclemencies of the weather, in the open ſtrets: within the caſtle all was trepidation: nothing was to be heard from without but imprecations, and the voices of enraged multitudes demanding the life of the queen and the gardes du-corps. Toward midnight, however, all appeared tolerably ſtill and peaceable, when the beating of drums, and the light of innumerable torches, announced the approach of the Pariſian army.

The day began to break at about half paſt five; and at this period crowds of women and other deſperate perſons, breathing vengeance, and thirſting for blood, advanced to the caſtle, which, in an hour of fatal

ſecurity, was left unguarded in ſeveral places. An immenſe crowd found its way into every part. The queen had been awakened a quarter of an hour before by the clamours of the women who aſſembled upon the terrace; but her waiting-woman had ſatisfied her, by ſaying, "that they were only the women of Paris, who, ſhe ſuppoſed, not being able to find a lodging, were walking about." But the tumult approaching, and becoming apparently more ſerious, ſhe roſe, dreſſed herſelf in haſte, and ran to the king's apartment by a private paſſage. In her way ſhe heard the noiſe of a piſtol and a muſquet, which redoubled her terror. "My friends," ſaid ſhe to every perſon ſhe met, "ſave me and my children!" In the king's chamber ſhe found the dauphin, who had been brought there by one of her women; but the king was gone. Awakened by the tumult, he had ſeen from a window the multitude preſſing towards the ſtair-caſe; and alarmed for the queen, he haſtened to her apartment, and entered it at one door at the moment ſhe had quitted it by the other. He returned without loſs of time; and having with the queen brought the princeſs-royal into the chamber, they prepared to face the multitude.

In the mean time the noiſe and tumult increaſed, and appeared at the very door of the chamber. Nothing was to be heard but the moſt dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blows againſt the outer door, a pannel of which was broken, and inſtant death was expected by the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult ſeemed to ceaſe—every thing was quiet, and a moment after a gentle rap was heard at the door. The door was opened, and in an inſtant the apartments were filled with the Pariſian guard. The officer who conducted them ordered them to ground their arms. "We come," ſaid he, "to ſave the king;" and turning to ſuch of the gardes-du-corps as were in the apartments, "We will ſave you alſo, gentlemen; let us from this moment be united."

The royal family now ventured to ſhow themſelves at the balcony, and received the moſt lively acclamations of reſpect from the ſoldiers and the people. A ſingle voice, or a few voices, exclaimed—"The king to Paris!" and this was inſtantly followed by an univerſal acclamation enforcing the ſame demand. The king addreſſed them:—"You wiſh me to go to Paris:—I will go, on the condition that I am to be accompanied by my wife and children."—He was anſwered by re-iterated acclamations of *Vive le roi!* It was two in the afternoon before the proceſſion ſet out. During the progreſs all was gaiety and joy among the ſoldiers and ſpectators: and ſuch was the reſpect in which the French nation ſtill held the name and perſon of their king, that the multitude were ſuperſtitiouſly perſuaded that the royal preſence would actually put an end to the famine. On his arrival, the king was congratulated by the municipality, and declared his approbation of the loyalty which the city of Paris manifeſted.

The ſpirit of the nation was ſo entirely averſe from the principles of the high ariſtocratic party, that numbers of them, particularly the king's two brothers, and ſome of the firſt rank and fortune, took refuge in foreign countries, where they applied themſelves indefatigably to the purpoſe of exciting war againſt their country.

Great preparations were made for the celebration of a grand confederation, in which the repreſentatives of the nation, the king, the ſoldiery, and all who were in oſtenſible ſituations, ſhould ſolemnly, and in the face of the whole nation, renew their oaths of fidelity to the new conſtitution; and this confederation was decreed to take place on the

14th of July, 1790, in honour of the taking of the Baſtile, and of the firſt eſtabliſhment of Gallic liberty. The *Champ de Mars*, ſo famous for having been the rendez-vous of the troops which in the preceding year were intended to overawe the capital, was choſen for this ſolemnity. This piece of ground, which is about 400 toiſes, or 800 yards, in diameter, is bounded on the right and left by lofty trees, and commands at the further extremity a view of the Military Academy. In the middle of this vaſt plain an altar was erected for the purpoſe of adminiſtering the civic oath; and round it an immenſe amphitheatre was thrown up, of a league in circumference, and capable of containing 400,000 ſpectators. The entrance was through triumphal arches. The king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each ſide of it were ſeats for the members of the national aſſembly.

The important 14th of July at length arrived. The national guards of the departments, diſtinguiſhed by their reſpective ſtandards, the battalions of infantry, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of France, and the foreigners who ſerved under its banners, being arranged in military order, the king and the national aſſembly took a ſolemn oath to maintain the conſtitution; the armed citizens repeated it amongſt the applauſes of innumerable ſpectators. They ſwore to live free, or die; and this oath was taken on the ſame day through the whole extent of the kingdom.

The eſcape of the king and queen with their infant children, and monſieur and madame, on the 20th of June, 1791, menaced France with the convulſions of anarchy and the horrors of civil war. The route of the royal fugitives, which had been expected to have been towards the Auſtrian Netherlands, the neareſt frontier of the kingdom, was in fact directed towards Metz, from the preſence of ſo gallant and accompliſhed a royaliſt as M. de Bouillé in that quarter, from its vicinity to the prince of Condé's army in Germany, and from the probable reluctance of Leopold to hazard the tranquillity of his Netherlands, by permitting any incurſion from them into France.—They reached St. Menehould, a ſmall town about 150 miles from Paris. The king was there recogniſed by the poſtillion, who ſaid to him, "*Mon roi, je vous connois, mais je ne vous trahirai pas.*" "I know you, my king, but I will not betray you." But the poſt-maſter, M. Drouet, leſs full of monarchic prejudice, adopted a different conduct. He avoided, with great dexterity and preſence of mind, betraying his knowledge of the rank of the royal travellers, being much ſtruck with the reſemblance which his majeſty's countenance bore to his effigy on an aſſignat of 50 livres. The carriages taking the road to Varennes, he went a croſs-road to rejoin them; and arriving before them at Varennes, he alarmed the town and aſſembled the national guards, who, notwithſtanding the detachment of huſſars by which they were eſcorted, diſarmed them, and the KING was then *made a priſoner*; and at ſix o'clock in the afternoon of the 25th of June, their majeſties, with the dauphin and madame royale, arrived at the Tuilleries.

The new conſtitution was preſented to the king on the 3d of September, 1791, who on the 13th ſignified his acceptance of it in writing, and the following day appeared in the aſſembly, introduced by a deputation of ſixty members, and ſolemnly conſecrated the aſſent which he had already given, and concluded with an oath, "To be faithful to the nation and to the law, and to employ the powers veſted in him for the maintenance of the conſtitution, and the due execution of the law." Soon after this, the ſecond national council aſſembled, with abilities far inferior to the firſt.

The dubious and undecided conduct of the emperor, and the refuge and protection found in the German empire by the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous reſolutions; and a manifeſto, addreſſed to all ſtates and nations, made its appearance. The forcible meaſures purſued had the effect of intimidating the German princes; and the emigrants were conſtrained to an ignominious diſperſion from the frontiers. But the protection of the emperor and the Pruſſian king afforded them aſylums more remote and leſs obtruſive. Irreſolution ſeemed to preſide in the councils of the emperor, a monarch more eminent for the mild virtues of peace than for the exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag; he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as abſolutely free; while the league of Pilnitz (which, as was avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to ſecure Germany from ſuch a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguiſh the dreaded ſource), and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a friend. His ſudden death, on the firſt of March, 1792, excited great conſternation among the ariſtocrats, and afforded joy and exultation to the ſupporters of the conſtitution. Another event no leſs unexpected happened in the death of the Swediſh monarch, on the 29th of the ſame month; and the ſuperſtitious vulgar imagined that they beheld the peculiar protection of heaven in the removal of the two chief foes of France in ſo ſhort a time.

In the progreſs of the negociations between the national aſſembly and the court of Vienna, the young Hungarian king, excited by the influence of Pruſſia, began to exhibit more enmity, and to uſe ſeverer language. At length, on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles, in his diſpatches to the French miniſter for foreign affairs, explained the propoſitions of the Imperial court, that ſatisfaction ſhould be given to the German princes proprietors of Alſace; that Avignon, which had been appropriated by France, ſhould be reſtored to the pope; and that the internal government of France ſhould be inveſted with ſufficient efficiency, that the other powers might have no apprehenſions of being troubled by France. Theſe terms produced a declaration of war againſt Francis I. king of Hungary and Bohemia, decreed by the aſſembly, and ratified by the French king, on the 24th of April,

The firſt movement of the French was ſtained with defeat, and with the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, their leader, who fell a prey to the ſuſpicious and ſavage ferocity of ſome of his ſoldiers, who fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The court of Vienna had, in the beginning of July, publiſhed a declaration explaining the cauſe of the war, and retorting on the French nation ſome of the heavy charges contained in its declaration of war againſt the king of Hungary and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany. On the 20th day of the ſame month, the Pruſſian monarch iſſued a conciſe expoſition of the reaſons which determined him to take up arms againſt France. He pleaded his alliance with the emperor, and that, as ſovereign of a German ſtate, he was bound to interfere to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alſace and Lorraine, and the invaſion of the territories of others: and he honeſtly concluded by avowing that it was his intention to repreſs the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries. At the ſame time the duke of Brunſwick, general of the combined armies of Auſtria and Pruſſia, publiſhed, at Coblentz, a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the moſt haughty and preſumptuous terms; he

declared his intention of putting a ſtop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of reſtoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards ſays his deſign was not to interfere in the internal government. It is unneceſſary to dwell on the other parts of this inſolent memorial, in which France was already regarded as a conquered country, and directions were given to the magiſtrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large: but the threat that the city of Paris ſhould be given up to military execution, in caſe the leaſt outrage ſhould be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, is worthy of a Hun.

The exceſſes of the night between the 9th and 10th of Auguſt we relate with pain. At midnight the alarm-bell ſounded in every quarter of Paris, the *générale* was beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The palace of the Tuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family, were forced to take refuge in the national aſſembly. At firſt the Swiſs guards (who were obnoxious to the people, and had been ineffectually proſcribed by repeated decrees of the aſſembly, the king not being allowed to have a foreign guard) repelled the populace; but theſe being re-inforced by the Marſeillois, and federates from Breſt, bodies which the Jacobins ſeem to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiſs, and by national guards, the gates of the palace were burſt open. The artillery joined the aſſailants. The conſequences were, that, after a ſlaughter of about four hundred on each ſide, the Swiſs guards were exterminated, and the palace ranſacked.

The month of September ſeemed pregnant with the total ruin of French freedom, while the three following months reverſed the ſcene, and exhibited a tide of ſucceſs on the part of France, perhaps unexampled in modern hiſtory.—It is with infinite concern that we direct the attention of our readers to the priſon ſcene, which occurred on the 2d and 3d of September. The horrid maſſacre of the defenceleſs priſoners, and other ariſtocrats, which took place at that period, is an eternal diſgrace to the Pariſian populace, who, in their fury, ſpared not even that gentle ſex which all civiliſed nations hold in the higheſt reſpect. The number of the ſlain has doubtleſs been exaggerated, as uſual; yet ſuppoſing that, by the moſt moderate account, only two thouſand periſhed, the enormity of the deed remains the ſame. Some extenuation might be offered for the affair of the 10th of Auguſt, in which a people, who ſuppoſed themſelves betrayed to ſlavery and all its evils, ſo recently experienced and ſhaken off, aſſumed their revenge and their cauſe into their own hands; but no defence can be offered for this unneceſſary crime. Had the combined armies beſieged Paris, it is difficult to conceive what aid they could have found from two or three thouſand ariſtocrats, and many of theſe ſecured in chains.

A national convention had been called, to determine on the charges brought againſt the king. They met on the 24th of September; and, on the firſt day of the meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was decreed by acclamation: and the following day it was ordered that all public acts ſhould be dated "the firſt year, &c. of the French republic." But hardly was this convention conſtituted, when a violent faction appeared, headed by Marat *, Robeſpierre, and others, who repeat-

* Marat fell by the hands of female vengeance. Marie Anne Charlotte Cordey, ſtrongly impreſſed with the calamities which he had brought upon her country, took a journey to Paris, in July, 1793, on purpoſe to put a period to his exiſtence. Meeting Marat as he was coming from the bath, and entering into converſation with him (more certainly to identify his perſon), ſhe plunged a dagger into his breaſt; upon

edly degraded its tranſactions by their fanaticiſm; and being ſupported by the Jacobins and Pariſian populace, proved too powerful for the convention to puniſh as it wiſhed. Repeated inſtances have proved that the convention was not free, but muſt vote as the mob of Paris dictated; the moderation of the members being often obliged to yield to the indecent applauſes and hiſſes of the galleries.

So rapid was the progreſs of the French arms, and ſo great were the diſtreſſes in the combined armies, ariſing from a ſcarcity of proviſions, from a long rainy ſeaſon, and from a conſiderable mortality among the Pruſſians (by the French accounts, eſtimated at one half), that the Pruſſians retreated from the dominions of France; whoſe example the Auſtrians ſoon followed.

Even at the very time that Paris was in the greateſt danger, the invaſion of Savoy was ordered. On the 21ſt of September general Monteſquiou entered the Savoyard territories, ſeized on the frontier poſts and caſtles without reſiſtance, and two days after took Montmelian. Chamberry and all Savoy ſoon followed; but the conqueſt, not being reſiſted, was productive of no military glory. The imprudence of the national convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itſelf with France, has excited wonder. After frequent declarations that the French would enter into no war with any view to conqueſt, their conduct in this reſpect was abſurd and impolitic. It ſubjected them to the merited reproach that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the deſtructive maxims of their ancient government; and that their wiſhes to increaſe their territory, perhaps to ſubjugate Europe, remained the ſame. Admiral Truguet, commanding a ſquadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa Franca, and the fortreſs of Montalban, belonging to the king of Sardinia.

The conqueſt of Savoy was regarded as a trifle; but when Cuſtine began his acquiſitions in Germany, every eye was turned to the rapidity and importance of his progreſs, till diverted by the wonders of Dumouriez. Spires yielded to the French arms on the 30th of September, and Worms ſoon after followed; ample ſupplies of proviſions and ammunition were found in theſe cities. Cuſtine, purſuing his courſe along the left bank of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Frankfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblentz, that noted ſeat of the counter-revoluioniſts; but the Pruſſians and Auſtrians at length indicated a renewal of hoſtilities by garriſoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country.

The conqueſt of the Auſtrian Netherlands forms the next grand object. Dumouriez had promiſed to paſs his Chriſtmas at Bruſſels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt proved very modeſt, for that city was in his hands by the 14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands on the firſt or ſecond of that month, with an army of forty thouſand men, and with a moſt formidable train of artillery, in repeated engagements with the Auſtrian army, commanded by the duke of Saxe-Teſchen, governor of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and by general Beaulieu, which however exceeded not twenty thouſand, occupied the firſt five days. At length, on the 6th of November, a deciſive battle was fought at Jemappe, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The conteſt was very general: all the points of the enemy's

which he fell, and ſoon expired. Glorying in having exterminated a monſter, ſhe delivered herſelf up to the officers of juſtice, and with the utmoſt firmneſs ſubmitted to her fate, in having her head ſevered by the guillotine, in the 25th year of her age.

flanks and lines were attacked at once; all the bodies of the French were in action, and almoſt every individual fought perſonally. The cannonade began at ſeven in the morning; Dumouriez ordered the village of Carignon to be attacked, becauſe he could not attempt the heights of Jemappe till he had taken that village. At noon the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. After an obſtinate defence, the Auſtrians at two o'clock retired in the utmoſt diſorder.

Dumouriez immediately advanced, and took poſſeſſion of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren. The tidings arriving at Bruſſels, the court was ſtruck with an indeſcribable panic, and inſtantly fled to Ruremond, whence it was again to be driven by the arms of Miranda. Tournay ſurrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumouriez having refreſhed his troops at Mons, advanced to Bruſſels, where, after an indeciſive engagement between his van and the Auſtrian rear, he was received with acclamations on the 14th of that month.—Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines or Mechlin, Louvain, Oſtend, Namur, in ſhort all the Auſtrian Netherlands, except Luxembourg, ſucceſſively followed the example of the capital; and the conqueſts of Louis XIV. were not more rapid.

Many of the prieſts, who were baniſhed, came to England, and were received with great benevolence: this was followed by the decree of the national convention againſt the emigrants, by which they are declared dead in law, their effects confiſcated, and themſelves adjudged to immediate death, if they appear in France.

Another decree of the 19th of November attracted the attention of every nation in Europe. It is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and aſſiſtance to all thoſe people who wiſh to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to ſend orders to the generals to give aſſiſtance to ſuch people, and to defend citizens who have ſuffered, or are now ſuffering, in the cauſe of liberty." This decree, and others of a ſimilar tendency, ſeemed to inſtitute a political cruſade againſt all the powers of Europe.

No ſooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, ſhut up by the treaty of Munſter, 1648, was projected and ordered; notwithſtanding this treaty, ſo far as reſpects the ſhutting up of the navigation of this river, had been confirmed to the Dutch in ſucceeding treaties, guaranteed both by the courts of Verſailles and London. The Dutch regarded this meaſure as injurious to their trade, for Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amſterdam. The infraction of this treaty is one of the reaſons which induced the parliament of Great Britain to oppoſe the unwarrantable pretenſions of the French.

The memorable trial of the king commenced on the 11th of December. The iſſue is too well known. The firmneſs of this unfortunate monarch during his trial, and at the place of execution, on the 21ſt of January, 1793, increaſed the commiſeration of every indifferent ſpectator; and callous indeed muſt be the perſon who does not partake of the ſympathy which was felt through all Europe upon this tranſaction.

It would be a tedious and diſagreeable undertaking to trace minutely and gradually the progreſs of the diſpute between France and England. Without affixing any degree of credit to the reports that Great Britain had early but ſecretly acceded to the concert of princes, and the treaty of Pilnitz, it is natural to believe that the Britiſh miniſtry had long

viewed with a jealous eye the progreſs of the French revolution towards a turbulent democracy. We muſt, however, do the French nation the juſtice to confeſs, that the unanimous voice of that people was clamorous from the firſt for peace and alliance with England. A ſeries of events changed this inclination. A bill for forcibly tranſporting aliens out of the kingdom was introduced into parliament. The ports of Great Britain were ſhut againſt the exportation of corn to France, while it was permitted to her enemies. In the end, the ambaſſador of the republic, M. Chauvelin, was ordered, under the authority of the alien bill, at a ſhort notice, out of the kingdom: immediately after which diſmiſſion, the convention declared that the French republic was at war with the king of England, and the ſtadtholder of the United Provinces.

In conſequence of theſe meaſures, general Dumouriez proceeded with a large body of troops to invade Holland, exhorting the Batavians, in a violent manifeſto, to reject the tyrannic ariſtocracy of the ſtadtholder and his party, and to become a free republic. The Dutch made preparations for defending themſelves; and the Engliſh cabinet ſeconded their efforts, by an immediate embarkation of troops, to the command of which the duke of York was appointed.

The ſubjugation of Holland was the firſt project of general Dumouriez; and when the eaſe with which he had effected the conqueſt of the Netherlands, and the courage and ability diſplayed by him and his army at the famous battle of Jemappe, were conſidered, there ſeemed reaſon to apprehend that he would ſoon make an impreſſion on theſe provinces; and the eaſy ſurrender of Breda and Gertruydenberg encouraged him to boaſt that he would terminate the conteſt by a ſpeedy approach to Amſterdam. Certain events, however, enſued, which effectually prevented the performance of this promiſe.

General Miranda, who had beſieged the city of Maeſtricht, and ſummoned the governor to ſurrender, was attacked by prince Frederic of Brunſwick, and defeated with conſiderable loſs. The Auſtrians, after this, divided themſelves into three columns, two of which marched towards Maeſtricht, and the ſiege of that place was immediately raiſed. The third purſued the advanced guard of the republic; and the abſence of ſeveral commanding officers was ſuppoſed to have greatly facilitated the ſucceſs of the Pruſſians in theſe rencounters.

On the 14th of March, the Imperialiſts advanced from Tongres towards Tirlemont, by St. Tron, and were attacked by general Dumouriez ſucceſſively on the 15th and following days. The firſt attempts were attended with ſucceſs. The Auſtrian advanced poſts were obliged to retire to St. Tron, through Tirlemont, which they had already paſſed. On the 18th, a general engagement took place at Neerwinden, the French army being covered on the left by Dormael, and on the right by Landen. The action continued with great obſtinacy on both ſides, from ſeven in the morning till five in the afternoon, when the French were obliged to fall back, and the Auſtrian cavalry coming up, put them entirely to flight. The loſs in each army was great. The French diſplayed conſiderable courage and addreſs, but were overpowered by the ſuperior numbers, and perhaps by the more regular diſcipline, of their enemies.

Dumouriez was now ſuſpected of treachery, and general Miranda intimated his ſuſpicions, in a confidential letter to Petion, dated the 21ſt of March. Four commiſſioners were immediately ſent from Paris, with powers to ſuſpend and arreſt all generals and military officers whom they ſhould ſuſpect, and bring them to the bar of the convention. Theſe

commiſſioners, on the 1ſt of April, proceeded to St. Amand, the head-quarters of Dumouriez, and, being admitted to his preſence, explained to him the object of their miſſion. After a conference of ſome hours, the general, not finding that he could perſuade them to favour his intentions, gave the ſignal for a body of ſoldiers who were in waiting, and ordered the miniſter of war, Bournonville, who was ſent to ſuperſede him, and the commiſſioners, Camus, Blancal, La Marque, and Quinette, immediately to be conveyed to general Clairfait's head-quarters at Tournay, as hoſtages for the ſafety of the royal family.

Dumouriez, notwithſtanding his ſplendid talents, found himſelf groſsly miſtaken with reſpect to the diſpoſition of his army; they had reſented the affront ſo imprudently offered to their general; but when he came to explain to them his plan, and propoſe the reſtoration of royalty in the perſon of the prince, they all forſook him; and he was obliged to fly with a very few attendants, making his eſcape through a dreadful diſcharge of muſketry, which the whole column poured upon him and his aſſociates.

The latter end of June, and the beginning of July, were chiefly diſtinguiſhed, in the north, by ſome petty ſkirmiſhes between the two grand armies. In the latter part of July, the Auſtrians obtained ſome ſucceſſes of more importance. The garriſon of Condé, after ſuſtaining a blockade of three months, ſurrendered on the 10th, by capitulation, to the prince of Cobourg; and Valenciennes, on the 20th of the ſame month, to the duke of York, not without ſome ſuſpicions of treachery in both caſes.

Encouraged by theſe ſucceſſes, a large detachment from the combined army, under the command of the duke of York, proceeded, without loſs of time, to attack the port and town of Dunkirk. On the 22d of Auguſt, the duke of York marched from Furnes to attack the French camp at Ghivelde, which was abandoned at his approach, and he was almoſt immediately enabled to take the ground which it was his intention to occupy during the ſiege. On the 24th, he attacked the outpoſts of the French, who, with ſome loſs, were driven into the town. In this action, the famous Auſtrian general Dalton, and ſome other officers of note, were killed. The ſucceeding day, the ſiege might be ſaid regularly to commence. A conſiderable naval armament from Great Britain was to have co-operated in the ſiege; but, by ſome neglect, admiral Macbride was not able to ſail ſo early as was expected. In the mean time, the hoſtile army was extremely haraſſed by the gun-boats of the French; a ſucceſsful ſortie was effected by the garriſon on the 6th of September; and the French collecting in ſuperior force, the duke of York, on the 7th, after ſeveral ſevere actions, in which the allied forces ſuffered very conſiderably, was compelled to raiſe the ſiege, and leave behind him his numerous train of artillery. General Houchard was afterwards impeached by the convention, and beheaded, for not having improved his ſucceſs to the beſt advantage, as it was aſſerted that he had it in his power to capture almoſt the whole of the duke of York's army.

The diſaffection of the ſouthern provinces of France was at this time productive of ſerious dangers to the new republic. It is well known that the deputies and people of theſe provinces were among the moſt active to promote the dethroning of the king on the 10th of Auguſt, 1792. It is, therefore, ſomewhat extraordinary, that the ſame men ſhould be among the firſt to rebel againſt the authority of the convention. The formidable union which took place, under the name of *federate republicaniſm*, between the cities of Marſeilles, Lyons, and Tou-

lon, in the courſe of the months of June and July, ſeemed to threaten almoſt the diſſolution of the exiſting authorities. A conſiderable army was, however, diſpatched againſt Lyons, and the city cloſely beſieged. The Marſeillois, in the mean time, opened their gates on the approach of the republican army, and ſubmitted; but the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with the Engliſh admiral, lord Hood, who was then cruiſing in the Mediterranean; and he took poſſeſſion both of the town and ſhipping, in the name of Lewis XVII. and under the poſitive ſtipulation that he ſhould aſſiſt in reſtoring the conſtitution of 1789.

Among the victims of popular reſentment, which fell about this period, was the celebrated general Cuſtine, whoſe former ſervices, whatever might have been his ſubſequent demerits, ought to have ſecured him more lenient treatment. He was recalled to Paris, from the command of the northern army, in the beginning of July, and on the 22d, committed, by a decree of the convention, a priſoner to the Abbey. He was tried by the revolutionary tribunal, and accuſed of having maintained an improper correſpondence with the Pruſſians while he commanded on the Rhine, and of having neglected various opportunities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes. It is needleſs to ſay that he was found guilty: to be ſuſpected was then to be condemned; and the populace of Paris, now accuſtomed to ſuch ſcenes, beheld the ſacrifice of their former defender with calm indifference, or with blind exultation.

The trial and condemnation of the queen immediately followed that of general Cuſtine. She had been removed, on the night of the 1ſt of Auguſt, from the Temple, to a ſmall and miſerable apartment in the priſon of the Conciergerie, where ſhe remained till ſhe was brought before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 15th of October. The act of accuſation conſiſted of ſeveral charges, many of which were frivolous and incredible; and few of them appeared to be ſufficiently ſubſtantiated by evidence; but had the conduct of Marie Antoinette been more unexceptionable than there is reaſon to believe it was, it is not very probable that ſhe would have eſcaped. After an hour's conſultation, therefore, the jury brought in their verdict—"Guilty of all the charges."

The queen heard the ſanguinary ſentence with dignity and reſignation; perhaps, indeed, it might be conſidered by her leſs as a puniſhment than as a releaſe. On the 16th of October, at about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, ſhe was conducted in a coach, from the priſon of the Conciergerie, to a ſcaffold prepared in the Place de la Révolution, where her unfortunate huſband had previouſly ſuffred. The people who crowded the ſtreets as ſhe paſſed, exhibited no ſigns of piety or compunction. Her behaviour, as her laſt ſufferings approached, was decent and compoſed. She met her fate in the thirty-eighth year of her age.

Soon after the convention had brought the queen to the ſcaffold, they entered upon the trial of Briſſot, and his ſuppoſed accomplices. Briſſot was charged with having ſaid and written, at the commencement of the revolution, that Fayette's retiring from the public ſervice was a national misfortune; that he diſtinguiſhed himſelf three times in the Jacobin club by ſpeeches, of which one provoked the ruin of the colonies, another the maſſacre of the patriots in the Champ de Mars, and the third the war againſt Auſtria.

Upon theſe and other vague accuſations, Briſſot, and twenty-one more of the convention, were brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 24th of October; a few days afterwards the jury de-

clared all the accuſed members to be accomplices in a conſpiracy which had exiſted againſt the unity and indiviſibility of the French republic; and the tribunal immediately condemned them all to the puniſhment of death. Valazé, after he had heard his ſentence, ſtabbed himſelf; and the remaining twenty-one were executed on the 30th of October.

The wretched and intriguing Egalité, late duke of Orléans, was ſoon after brought to the block. He was accuſed of having aſpired to the ſovereignty from the commencement of the revolution; but how well founded the charge was, it is not eaſy to determine. He was conveyed in a cart, on the evening of the 6th of November, to the place of execution, and ſuffered with great firmneſs, amidſt the inſults and reproaches of the populace.

In the ſouth of France, neither the exertions of the allies, nor the ſurrender of the Touloneſe, were ſufficient to produce the expected conſequence of eſtabliſhing a monarchical government. On the 30th of November, the garriſon of Toulon made a vigorous ſortie, in order to deſtroy ſome batteries which the French were erecting on certain heights within cannon ſhot of the city. The detachment ſent for this purpoſe accompliſhed it, and the French troops were ſurpriſed and fled. The allies, too much elated with their ſucceſs, purſued the fugitives till they unexpectedly encountered a conſiderable force, which had been ſent to cover their retreat. At this moment, general O'Hara, commander in chief at Toulon, came up, and while he was exerting himſelf to bring off his troops with regularity, received a wound in his arm, and was made priſoner by the republicans. Near a thouſand of the Britiſh, and allied forces, were killed, wounded, or taken priſoners on this occaſion.

Soon after the capture of the Britiſh general O'Hara, the city of Toulon was evacuated by the allies. On the morning of the 19th of December, the attack began before all the republican forces had time to come up. It was chiefly directed againſt an Engliſh redoubt (Fort Mulgrave) defended by more than three thouſand men, twenty pieces of cannon, and ſeveral mortars. This formidable poſt was attacked about five o'clock in the morning, and at ſix the republican flag was flying upon it.

The town was then bombarded from noon till ten o'clock the ſame night, when the allies and part of the inhabitants, having firſt ſet fire to the town and ſhipping, precipitated their flight. Two chaloupes, filled with the fugitives, were ſunk by the batteries. The precipitation with which the evacuation was effected cauſed a great part of the ſhips and property to fall into the hands of the French, and was attended with the moſt melancholy conſequences to the wretched inhabitants, who, as ſoon as they obſerved the preparations for flight, crowded to the ſhores, and demanded the protection which had been promiſed them on the faith of the Britiſh crown. A ſcene of confuſion, riot, and plunder enſued, and though great efforts were made to convey as many as poſſible of the people into the ſhips, thouſands were left to all the horrors of falling into the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many of them plunged into the ſea, and made a vain attempt to ſwim on board the ſhips; others were ſeen to ſhoot themſelves on the beach, that they might not endure the greater tortures they might expect from the republicans. During all this, the flames were ſpreading in every direction, and the ſhips that had been ſet on fire were threatening every inſtant to explode, and blow all around them into the air. This is but a faint deſcription of the ſcene on ſhore, and it was ſcarcely leſs dreadful

on board the ſhips. Loaded with the heterogeneous mixture of nations; with aged men and infants, as well as women; with the ſick from all the hoſpitals, and with the mangled ſoldiers from the poſts juſt deſerted, their wounds ſtill undreſt—nothing could equal the horrors of the ſight, except the ſtill more appalling cries of diſtraction and agony, that filled the ear, for huſbands, fathers, and children, left on ſhore.

In the latter end of March, the party called the Hebertiſts, conſiſting of Hebert, Momoro, Vincent, and ſome others, were arreſted, brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, and twenty of them executed. A few days after, the celebrated Danton, Fabre d'Eglantine, Bazire, Chabot, and others, were arreſted as conſpirators againſt the republic, tried in a very ſummary way, and ſentenced to death; which ſentence was executed on the 5th of April, 1794.

In conſequence of theſe executions, the government of France, however nominally republican, became almoſt entirely veſted in one man, the uſurper Robeſpierre—a name which will probably be tranſmitted with infamy to late poſterity. Under his ſanguinary adminiſtration, the priſons of Paris, at one time, contained between ſeven and eight thouſand perſons. Of the number of thoſe tried and executed, we we have no preciſe account; but they in general appeared rather to be ſacrificed in multitudes to a jealous and cowardly cruelty, than condemned with even the ſhadow of juſtice. In one of these barbarous ſlaughters, the princeſs Elizabeth, the ſiſter of the late unfortunate monarch, having been condemned on the moſt frivolous pretexts, was executed the laſt of twenty-ſix perſons, who were carried to the ſcaffold on the ſame day.

But, after the death of Danton, the fall of this tyrannical demagogue rapidly approached. A ſtrong party was ſecretly formed againſt him in the convention, headed by Tallien, Legendre, and ſome others. Finding themſelves ſufficiently ſtrong, Tallien moved the arreſt of Robeſpierre and his creatures; which decree was paſſed with applauſes from every quarter. The preſident then ordered one of the uſhers of the hall to take Robeſpierre into cuſtody; but ſuch was the awe which the preſence of this man was accuſtomed to inſpire, that the officer heſitated to perform his duty, till Robeſpierre himſelf made a ſign of obedience; and followed the uſher out of the hall. The priſoners were conducted by a few peace-officers to the priſon of the Luxembourg; but the adminiſtrator of the police on duty there, who was one of their creatures, refuſed to receive them; and they were then led, rather in triumph, than as priſoners, to the Hôtel de Ville.

In the mean time, Henriot, another leader of the party, had alſo been arreſted, but found means to eſcape and raiſe his partiſans, who took poſt with him and Robeſpierre in the Hôtel de Ville, where they pretended to form themſelves into a new convention, and declared the other repreſentatives traitors to their country. The people, however, did not eſpouſe their cauſe; the national guard, who had at firſt obeyed their orders with reluctance, forſook them; and the deputies who had been diſpatched for that purpoſe, attacked them in the Hôtel de Ville. Bourdon de l'Oiſe, after having read the proclamation of the convention, ruſhed into the hall of the commune, with a ſabre and piſtols; the inſurgents were completely deſerted, and now endeavoured to turn their arms againſt themſelves. Robeſpierre the elder diſcharged a piſtol in his mouth, which, however, failed of its effect, and only wounded him in the jaw, while he received another wound from a gendarme in the ſide. The younger Robeſpierre threw himſelf out of a window, and

broke a leg and an arm; Le Bas ſhot himſelf upon the ſpot; Couthon ſtabbed himſelf twice with a knife; and Henriot was thrown out of a window.

The priſoners were immediately conveyed before the revolutionary tribunal; and their perſons being identified, they were condemned to ſuffer death, in the Place de la Révolution, where the two Robeſpierres, and nineteen others, were executed at ſeven in the evening of the 28th of July, 1794.

In the campaign of this year, the arms of the new republic were ſucceſsful on every ſide againſt the allies. In Flanders, general Jourdan gained the battle of Fleurus; and Charleroi, Ypres, Bruges, and Courtray, ſurrendered to the French; Oſtend was evacuated; general Clairfait defeated near Mons, which immediately ſurrendered; and the prince of Cobourg compelled to abandon the whole of the Netherlands, while the victors, without oppoſition, entered Bruſſels and Antwerp. Landrecy, Queſnoi, Valenciennes, and Condé, were ſucceſſively retaken; and the French armies, purſuing their ſucceſs, took Aix-la-Chapelle, defeated Clairfait near Juliers, and made themſelves maſters of Cologn and Bonn. Maeſtricht and Nimeguen were likewiſe taken.

The United Provinces began now to be ſeriouſly alarmed. The ſtates of Frieſland were the firſt to feel their danger, and, in the month of October, theſe ſtates determined to acknowledge the French republic, to break their alliance with England, and to enter into a treaty of peace and alliance with France. In ſome other provinces, reſolutions hoſtile to the ſtadtholder and his government were likewiſe paſſed; and ſuch appeared to be the temper of the people, even at Amſterdam, that, on the 17th of October, the government of Holland publiſhed a proclamation, prohibiting the preſenting of any petition or memorial upon public or political ſubjects, and all popular meetings or aſſemblies of the people upon any occaſion.

On the 7th of December, the French made a feeble attempt to croſs the Waal, but were repulſed with loſs; but on the 15th the froſt ſet in with unuſual rigour, and opened a new road to the French armies. In the courſe of a week, the Maes and the Waal were both frozen over; and on the 27th, a ſtrong column of French croſſed the Maes, near the village of Driel. They attacked the allied army for an extent of above twelve leagues, and, according to the report of general Pichegru, "were, as uſual, victorious in every quarter." The army of the allies retreated before them, and, in its retreat, endured incredible hardſhips from the ſeverity of the weather and the want of neceſſaries. On the 10th of January, 1795, general Pichegru, having completed his arrangements, made his grand movement. The French croſſed the Waal at different points, with a force, according to ſome accounts, of 70,000 men. A general attack was made upon Walmoden's poſition, between Nimeguen and Arnheim. The allies were defeated in every quarter; and, utterly unprepared either for reſiſtance or for flight, ſuffered equally from the elements and the enemy.

It was in vain that the ſtadtholder iſſued manifeſtoes, proclamations, and exhortations to the Dutch peaſantry, conjuring them to riſe in a maſs for the defence of the country. The French continued to advance, and the allies to fly before them, till Utrecht ſurrendered to them on the 16th of January, Rotterdam on the 18th, and Dort on the ſucceeding day. The utmoſt conſternation now prevailed among the partizans of the ſtadtholder. The princeſs of Orange, with the younger

and female part of the family, and with all the plate, jewels, and moveables that could be packed up, eſcaped on the 15th. The ſtadtholder and the hereditary prince did not leave Holland till the 19th. His ſerene highneſs embarked at Scheveling, in an open boat, with only three men to navigate her, and arrived ſafe at Harwich. In England, the palace of Hampton-court was aſſigned him for his reſidence, where he ſtill remains.

On the 20th of January, general Pichegru entered Amſterdam in triumph, at the head of 5,000 men, and was received by the inhabitants with the loudeſt acclamations. The whole of the United Provinces either ſubmitted to or was reduced by the French, in a few weeks. An aſſembly of the proviſional repreſentatives of the people met on the 27th of January, and the whole government was changed, and modelled nearly after the French plan.

In the mean time, the king of Pruſſia, finding he could derive no advantage from the war, began to relax his efforts. The Pruſſian and Auſtrian forces, as well as their leaders, were on bad terms with each other; but it was not ſuſpected that any defection was about to place, on the part of the Pruſſians, till they began to retreat towards the Rhine, which they ſoon after paſſed. A negotiation between Pruſſia and France followed, which ended in a treaty of peace, ſigned at Baſle, on the 5th of April, 1795, by which his Pruſſian majeſty entirely abandoned the coalition.

The Pruſſian negotiation was followed by the treaty made between the French republic and Spain, in which country the arms of France had made a progreſs equally ſucceſsful and rapid. Fontarabia, which guards the entrance of Spain, and which had coſt the duke of Berwick 8,000 men, had been taken, almoſt immediately, by a detachment from the French army; Roſas was likewiſe taken; and the troops of the republic had made themſelves maſters of the greater part of the rich provinces of Biſcay and Catalonia, and were, in fact, in full march for the capital of the kingdom. Orders were therefore diſpatched to M. D'Yriarte, at Baſle, immediately to conclude a treaty; which was accordingly ſigned by the Spaniſh miniſter and M. Barthelemi, at Baſle, on the 22d of July.

About the middle of this year, died the infant ſon of the unfortunate Lewis XVI. An unjuſt and cloſe impriſonment, if it did not produce, at leaſt, it is probable, haſtened his fate. He had always been an unhealthy child, and ſubject to a ſcrofulous complaint, a diſorder in which confinement and inactivity are frequently fatal. For ſome time previous to his deceaſe, he had been afflicted with a ſwelling in his knee, and another in his wriſt. His appetite failed, and he was at length attacked with a fever. It does not appear that medical aid was denied him, or neglected The diſeaſe, however, continued to increaſe; and on the morning of the 9th of June, he expired in the priſon of the Temple, where he had been confined from the fatal autumn of 1792.

Moved perhaps by this event, or influenced by the general ſympathy of the people of France, the committee of public ſafety, in the beginning of July, propoſed the exchange of the princeſs, ſiſter of the dauphin, who was likewiſe a priſoner in the Temple, for the deputies delivered up to Auſtria by the treachery of Dumouriez, and the two ambaſſadors, Semonville and Maret, who had been ſeiſed, contrary to the law of nations, on a neutral territory, by an Auſtrian corps. The emperor, after ſome heſitation, acceded to the propoſal; and before the

concluſion of the year, the princeſs was delivered to the Auſtrian envoy, at Baſle in Switzerland, and the deputies were reſtored to their country.

In the courſe of this year, an expedition was planned by the Engliſh miniſtry, to invade the coaſt of France, in that part where the royaliſts, known by the name of Chouans, were in arms againſt the republicans. The force employed conſiſted chiefly of emigrants, under the command of M. Puiſaye, M. d'Hervilly, and the count de Sombreuil. They landed in the bay of Quiberon, and took the fort of the ſame name; but ſoon after experienced a ſad reverſe—the fort being ſurpriſed by the republican troops, under the command of general Hoche, who killed or made priſoners the greater part of the emigrants, Chouans, and Engliſh, in the fort, amounting nearly to 10,000 men. The count de Sombreuil, the biſhop of Dol, with his clergy who accompanied him, and moſt of the emigrant officers, who were made priſoners, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death. Before the month of April, in the enſuing year (1796), the force of the inſurgents in this part of France was entirely broken, and their chiefs, Charette and Stoflet, taken priſoners, and put to death.

In Germany, the French army had croſſed the Rhine near Manheim, and blockaded Mentz, to which they had already laid ſiege for ſeveral months. In this attempt, however, they were unſucceſsful: they ſuffered a defeat from the Auſtrians, and were compelled to re-paſs the river. A ſuſpenſion of arms, for three months, was ſoon after agreed to by the generals of the contending armies, which was ratified by the reſpective powers.

In the ſucceeding year (1796), the campaign opened in the ſouth, on the 9th of April, when the rapid and ſignal victories of the republican troops, under the command of the then obſcure and little known, but now juſtly celebrated Buonaparte, ended, in little more than a month, the war with Sardinia. The battles of Milleſſimo, Dego, Mondovi, Monte Lerino, and Monte Notte, compelled his Sardinian majeſty to accept ſuch terms as the conquerors thought proper to offer; and a treaty of peace, by which he ceded Savoy and Nice to France, was ſigned on the 17th of May.

Buonaparte purſued his ſucceſs, and again defeating Beaulieu, the Auſtrian general, at the battle of the bridge of Lodi, forced the ſhattered remains of the Auſtrian army to retire towards Mantua, purſued by one part of the republican forces, while the remainder entered Milan on the 18th of May, without further reſiſtance, and the French armies gained poſſeſſion of the whole of Lombardy.

The armiſtice which had been concluded on the Rhine, was afterwards prolonged, but at length declared to be at an end on the 31ſt of May; when the army of the Sambre and Meuſe, under general Jourdan, gaining conſiderable advantages over the Auſtrians, advanced into the heart of the empire; while another army, under general Moreau, paſſed the Rhine at Straſbourg, took the fort of Kehl, a poſt of great importance, on the oppoſite bank, and penetrating through Bavaria, nearly to Ratiſbon, endeavoured to form a junction with the army of Jourdan. This attempt, however, did not ſucceed; both armies experienced a reverſe of fortune, and were obliged to retreat till they recroſſed the Rhine. The ſituation of general Moreau was highly critical, and his retreat is acknowledged, on all ſides, to have been conducted with great military ſkill. The archduke Charles, who commanded the Auſtrian army, followed Moreau in his retreat, and laid

ſiege to the fort of Kehl, which he re-took, after a moſt obſtinate reſiſtance on the part of the French.

To reſtore the affairs of Italy, the emperor aſſembled a new army, compoſed of the flower of the German troops ſerving on the Rhine, and gave the command of it to general Wurmſer, one of the oldeſt and ableſt of the Imperial generals. This force, on its firſt arrival, was ſucceſsful. The French were repulſed, defeated, and compelled to raiſe the ſiege of Mantua. Buonaparte, however, ſoon returned to the charge; and, after a ſeries of hotly-conteſted actions, the army of Wurmſer was ſo reduced and haraſſed, that he was obliged to ſhut himſelf up in Mantua, where he was cloſely beſieged by the victors, who at the ſame time made incurſions into the Tyrol, and, by the battle of Roveredo, and the poſſeſſion of Trent, became maſters of the paſſes that led to Vienna. The Auſtrians, at the ſame time, made a great effort, under general Alvinzy, to reſcue the gallant Wurmſer and his beſieged army; but the battle of Arcole completely defeated their deſign, and Mantua was ſoon after obliged to ſurrender.

The victories of Buonaparte compelled the pope, the king of Naples, and the inferior princes of Italy, to conclude ſuch treaties as the French thought proper to dictate. The victors likewiſe founded a new republic in Italy, at firſt called the Ciſpadane, but afterwards the Ciſalpine republic, to which they annexed ſuch parts of the papal territory as they judged convenient.

After the taking of Mantua, the victorious Buonaparte penetrated into the Tyrol, and directed his courſe towards the Imperial capital. The archduke Charles was oppoſed to him, but was unable to check his progreſs. The republican armies had at length advanced ſo near to Vienna, that the utmoſt alarm and confuſion prevailed in that city. The bank ſuſpended its payments, and the emperor was preparing to forſake his capital, and remove to Olmutz. In this critical ſituation of his affairs, his Imperial majeſty opened a negotiation with Buonaparte; a ſhort armiſtice was agreed to, and the preliminaries of peace between the emperor and king of Hungary, and the French republic, were ſigned at Leoben, in the month of April, 1797.

In the mean time, a tumult having taken place at Venice, in which a number of the French ſoldiers were murdered in the hoſpitals of that city, the French armies, on their return, aboliſhed the ancient government of Venice, planted the tree of liberty in St. Mark's Place, eſtabliſhed a municipality, and propoſed to annex the city and territory to the new Ciſalpine republic. But the concluſion of the definitive treaty of peace with the emperor being protracted on account of the French refuſing to reſtore Mantua, as it is alleged it was ſtipulated they ſhould, in the preliminaries, they at length agreed to cede to him the city and a part of the territory of Venice, in compenſation for Mantua.

The definitive treaty of peace between France and the emperor was ſigned at Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 1797. By this treaty the emperor ceded to France the whole of the Netherlands, and all his former territory in Italy. He received in return the city of Venice, Iſtria, and Dalmatia, and the Venetian iſlands in the Adriatic: the French were to poſſeſs the other Venetian iſlands.

While the negotiation which terminated in this treaty was carrying on, the diſputes of two contending parties were producing a new revolution in France. On the 5th of March the two councils drew the lots which deprived one third of their members of their ſeats in the legiſlature, and the new deputies elected in their room took their ſeats on the 20th of the

ſame month. It ſoon appeared that the anti-directorial party had received a conſiderable acceſſion of ſtrength. The conduct of the directory was very freely canvaſſed, retrenchment of expenſe in both civil and military offices was propoſed; the laws relative to polygamy were ordered to be reviſed, and the ſeverity of thoſe againſt prieſts and emigrants was greatly relaxed. The proceedings of the directory, with reſpect to the Venetian, Genoeſe, and Helvetic republics, were ſeverely cenſured, and it was evident that an open rupture between the directory and the councils was inevitable. Unfortunately for the party in oppoſition to the directory, the armies took part with the latter. The army of Italy tranſmitted to the directory a moſt violent addreſs relative to theſe diſputes, and its example was followed by the other armies of the republic. The oppoſition party were ſlow and irreſolute in the meaſures they took for their defence: they probably relied with too much confidence on their ſuppoſed ſtrength, as they had a deciſive majority in the council of five hundred, and two out of the five directors, Carnot and Barthelemi, were in their intereſts. Barras, however, and his party, ſupported by the armies, reſolved on a prompt and violent meaſure, which effectually decided the conteſt.

On the morning of the 4th of September, at the early hour of three o'clock, Barras, and the two directors who acted with him, ordered the alarm-guns to be fired, and the halls of the councils to be ſurrounded with a military force. General Augereau, who was charged with the execution of theſe orders, repaired to the barracks, and addreſſed the guard of the legiſlative body, aſſuring them that he came only to preſerve the republic from the conſpiracy of royaliſts. The ſoldiers declared, with ſhouts of approbation, that he had only to command, and they were ready to obey. Thus reinforced by the very men to whom alone the councils could look for defence, Augereau entered the hall of the five hundred, and ſeized Pichegru, the preſident, with his own hands, and ordered about eighteen others of the moſt conſpicuous characters to be arreſted and committed to the temple. The halls were ſhut up, and the members of both councils appointed to meet in other places which were pointed out to them. Carnot and Barthelemi were implicated in the fate of their friends in the councils. The former took advantage of the tumult and fled; the latter calmly awaited the ſtorm, and was put under arreſt. Barthelemi, Pichegru, and a number of the deputies who were ſeized by Augereau, were afterwards tranſported to Cayenne, whence the two former, and ſome others, have ſince found means to return to Europe.

The power of the directory, or rather of the party of Barras, being now rendered complete by this deciſive victory over the councils, they projected new ſchemes of ambition and conqueſt, in order to give employment to the armies, and afford them an opportunity of enriching themſelves by plunder. A tumult having taken place at Rome, in which a French general was killed, they ſubverted the government of that city, depoſed the pope, and erected a new republic, which they called the Roman republic. They likewiſe found a pretext to invade and levy heavy contributions on Switzerland, which they endeavoured to tranſform into a new republic, under the title of the Helvetic republic, the government of which would, in conſequence, be delivered into the hands of their own officers and partiſans. Of theſe invaſions the reader will find a farther account under the heads of Italy and Switzerland.

In the beginning of the year 1798, a congreſs of deputies from the ſtates of the German empire met at Raſtadt, to negotiate a peace between France and the empire, on the baſis of the treaty of Campo Formio: Buonaparte repaired thither, met the aſſembled plenipotentiaries, and ex-

changed with count Meerfeldt the ratification of the treaty of peace with the court of Vienna, after which he returned to Paris, leaving the commiſſioners, Treilhard and Bonnier, to conduct the negotiations, which were protracted to a great length.

After the concluſion of peace with the empire, the army became a burthen which it was found difficult to ſupport; and though a part of it had been employed in the plundering of Rome, and the oppreſſion of Switzerland, there ſtill remained a large body of troops in a ſtate of inactivity that might ultimately prove dangerous to the government. An immediate invaſion of England was therefore announced to be reſolved on, and an army collected along the coaſts of France oppoſite to Great Britain, to which was given the pompous title of the Army of England. Convinced, however, of the impracticability of ſuch an invaſion, if ever it were really intended, the project was changed for another, likewiſe ſufficiently abſurd, which was an expedition to Egypt, under the command of Buonaparte; and the ultimate object of which, it is believed, was to penetrate, either by the Iſthmus of Suez, or by the Red Sea, to the Indian Ocean, embark the troops, and, by a co-operation with Tippoo Sultan, endeavour to effect the overthrow of the Britiſh empire in the Eaſt. While preparations were ſecretly making for this expedition, the public were amuſed with ſtrange and monſtrous ſtories of rafts to be conſtructed for the invaſion of England, and troops were collected on the northern coaſt of France, while the navy of the republic were ſecretly repairing to Toulon. At length the preparations being completed, Buonaparte embarked on board the fleet, under the command of admiral Brueys, with about 40,000 men, chiefly the veterans of the Italian army, and ſailed from Toulon in the latter end of May. On the 9th of June he arrived off the iſland of Malta, where he demanded leave to water the fleet, which was refuſed by the grand-maſter, in conſequence of which the French on the following day landed a body of troops. The little iſland of Gozzo was taken by one detachment, while the ſouthern parts of Malta were reduced by another. The greater part of the inhabitants took refuge in the garriſon, which, however, made but a feeble reſiſtance, the grand-maſter on the 11th agreeing to a capitulation, by which the whole iſland and its dependencies were ſurrendered to the French republic.

After leaving a garriſon of 4,000 men in Malta, Buonaparte proceeded on his voyage, about the 21ſt of June, and arrived at Alexandria on the 1ſt of July, having eſcaped the Britiſh ſquadron which was detached in purſuit of him under the command of admiral Nelſon. His uſual good fortune appeared to attend him in all his firſt attempts. The town of Alexandria was taken by aſſault, on the night of the 5th, with the loſs of between two and three hundred men, and on the 21ſt the French army appeared before Cairo, which was defended by Morad Bey with a conſiderable body of the Mamalukes; but on the 23d it was attacked and carried. The beys, however, attempted to rally, and collected a formidable force in the neighbourhood of Cairo; but the battle of the pyramids, which was fought on the 26th, rendered the French maſters of the greater part of the country. In that engagement, twenty-three beys, with all the forces they could bring into the field, were completely defeated. Two thouſand of the Mamalukes were ſlain, and four hundred camels with their baggage, and fifty pieces of cannon, were taken, with a very trifling loſs on the part of the French.

The conqueſt of Egypt now appeared to be complete; but on the 1ſt of Auguſt the expedition received a terrible blow in the defeat and deſtruction of the fleet, by Admiral Nelſon, of which an account has already

been given in our hiſtorical ſummary of the affairs of England. The French land-forces, however, remained in poſſeſſion of Egypt; and, to ſecure his conqueſt, Buonaparte advanced into Syria; where, after gaining ſome advantages, he received a deciſive check before St. John d'Acre. The Engliſh ſquadron, under Sir Sydney Smith, intercepted a flotilla which was bringing his battering artillery and ammunition from Egypt; and, Sir Sydney acting in concert with the Turks, he was completely repulſed in every aſſault, and obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and retreat back to Egypt with the ſhattered remains of his army. From Egypt, Buonaparte ſoon after took an opportunity to make his eſcape to France; where, as we ſhall preſently ſee, he became the author of a new and extraordinary revolution in the conſtitution and government.

The unprincipled attack on Egypt, contrary to the faith of treaties, ſo incenſed the Turks, that they immediately declared war againſt the French republic; and the emperor of Ruſſia having accepted a ſubſidy from Great Britain, entered into a treaty of alliance with the Ottoman Porte and with England, and gave orders for a large body of troops to be raiſed to act againſt France. Auſtria likewiſe appeared diſpoſed to avail itſelf of the aſſiſtance of this new ally; and the French directory having applied to the emperor for an explanation on this ſubject, and received none which they deemed ſatisfactory, ſent orders to general Jourdan to paſs the Rhine, with the avowed intention of forcing the diet of Ratisbon to declare againſt the march of the Ruſſian troops. He executed theſe orders on the 1ſt of March, 1799; and nearly about the ſame time, general Bernadotte, at the head of an army of obſervation, paſſed the Rhine at Waldeck, inveſted Philipsburg, and ſummoned that fortreſs to ſurrender, while general Ney ſent a ſimilar ſummons to Manheim, which immediately opened its gates to him. Yet, notwithſtanding theſe proceedings, the French ambaſſadors declared to the congreſs of Raſtadt, which though it had ſat ſo long, had as yet come to no concluſion, that theſe hoſtile movements were undertaken ſolely to prevent the interference of the court of Petersburg, and accelerate a general peace. The congreſs ſoon after was broken up, and two of the three French plenipotentiaries baſely and inhumanly murdered, as they were leaving the town, by ſome Auſtrian huſſars, or perſons who had aſſumed that diſguiſe.

The cabinet of Vienna being now certain of the aid of Ruſſia, the Auſtrian army, under the command of the archduke Charles, paſſed the Lech, on the 4th of March, and the war, which has ſo long deſolated Europe, was renewed. Fortune, at firſt, appeared to declare in favour of the French. A body of troops of that nation, advancing through Schaffhauſen towards Suabia, were oppoſed by a detachment of Auſtrians, whom they defeated, taking the general and three thouſand men priſoners. They were alſo ſucceſsful for a ſhort time in Italy. Their troops occupied the whole of Tuſcany; and the king of Sardinia was reduced, in the month of January, to the cruel neceſſity of formally renouncing the ſovereignty of Piedmont, and retiring with his family and adherents to the iſland whence he derived his title. The king of Naples likewiſe, having again taken up arms, and invaded the Roman republic, after being at firſt ſo ſucceſsful as to obtain poſſeſſion of Rome, was totally defeated, and obliged to take refuge in the iſland of Sicily.

But ſoon after the commencement of hoſtilities with Auſtria, the French arms experienced a fatal reverſe. On the 25th of March, general Jourdan attacked the Auſtrians near Stockach, but was defeated, and obliged to retire in diſorder; and on the 26th of the ſame month general Kray beat the French on the Adige near Verona, and again defeated

them on the 30th. On the 14th of April, marſhal Suwarrow arrived with the firſt column of the Ruſſian troops, and the ſucceſſes of the allies became rapid and uninterrupted. On the 24th of the ſame month, the Auſtrians and Ruſſians paſſed the Oglio, and drove the French before them. They then croſſed the Adda, and Suwarrow, on the 27th, defeated Moreau at Caſſans; and ſo deciſive was his victory, that general Serrurier and three thouſand men were taken priſoners, and Milan opened its gates to the conquerors on the 30th. Peſchiera was taken on the 6th of May, and, on the 10th, Pizzighetone ſurrendered to general Kray: on the 12th the Auſtrians entered Bologna, and took twelve hundred priſoners; and on the 23d they took poſſeſſion of Ferrara. In Piedmont, the French, notwithſtanding the efforts of Moreau, Macdonald, and Joubert, beheld themſelves ſucceſſively deprived of all their ſtrong holds. The Auſtrians entered Turin on the 27th of May, and the citadel ſurrendered on the 20th of June. Mantua, after a ſhort ſiege for ſo ſtrong a place, ſurrendered on the 30th of July, the city of Aleſſandria on the ſame day; and ſuch was the ſucceſs of the campaign, that the French were obliged to abandon the whole of Italy, Genoa, and a ſmall portion of the adjoining territory only excepted. On the 25th of Auguſt a deſperate battle was fought between the French and the Auſtrians and Ruſſians at Novi, in the territory of Genoa, in which the French are ſuppoſed to have loſt not leſs than ten thouſand men; but this victory was purchaſed with a loſs nearly as great on the part of the allies.

On the ſide of Switzerland, the affairs of the republic at firſt wore a leſs diſaſtrous aſpect—Maſſena having obtained ſome ſlight advantages. Theſe, however, were ſoon counterbalanced by events more favourable to the allies; the French general being obliged to abandon Zurich, which was immediately occupied by the Auſtrian troops under Hotze.

Italy being now reſcued from the power of the French, it was reſolved that Suwarrow ſhould proceed with his army to Switzerland, to drive the French back into their own territories, and enter France; where he was to endeavour to re-eſtabliſh the fallen monarchy. The directory were now convinced of their danger, and made every exertion to reinforce their armies in Switzerland, and the moſt active preparations for a vigorous defence. General Maſſena, who commanded the republican army in that country, diſplayed great military genius, and evinced uncommon abilities in all his enterprizes. Knowing that if Suwarrow effected a junction with the troops already acting againſt him, he muſt be inevitably overpowered, he determined to attack the latter; and in a variety of actions, during four whole days between the 14th and 20th of September, repeatedly defeated the Auſtrian and Ruſſian armies—many thouſands being killed and taken priſoners, among the former of which was the brave Auſtrian general Hotze.

Suwarrow, in conſequence, on his arrival in Switzerland, found it impoſſible to join his defeated and diſpirited allies; his plans were all rendered abortive; he was under the neceſſity of immediately withdrawing into Germany; and during his retreat over mountains covered with ſnow, and through roads nearly impaſſable, he ſuffered as much loſs as could have enſued after a ſignal defeat.

On the 13th of October, the celebrated Buonaparte, having found means to eſcape from Egypt, and elude the vigilance of the Britiſh cruizers, arrived in France, accompanied by general Berthier and ſome other officers. The recent loſſes which the republic had ſuſtained, and the imminent danger which threatened its very exiſtence, had greatly weakened the authority of the directory, and prepared the way for the

total alteration of the conſtitution and government, which had probably been projected by the Abbé Sieyes, and which the popularity and enterpriſing ſpirit of Buonaparte enabled him to carry into execution.

The firſt ſtep towards this revolution was taken by the council of ancients; which, on the 9th of November, paſſed a decree conſiſting of five articles, the chief of which were, that the legiſlative body ſhould, on the next day, be removed to St. Cloud; that Buonaparte ſhould be commiſſioned to carry into execution this decree; and, for this purpoſe, ſhould be appointed commandant of all the troops in Paris or its neighbourhood, of the guard of the legiſlative body, of that of the directory, and of the ſtationary national guard; that this decree ſhould be communicated by meſſage to the council of five hundred, and to the executive directory, and tranſmitted to all the communes of the republic by extraordinary couriers. After this decree had been paſſed, the council of ancients proceeded to publiſh an addreſs to the French nation, juſtificatory of their own conduct, and aſſerting "that the common ſafety, and common proſperity, were the objects of this conſtitutional meaſure: the inhabitants of Paris were deſired to remain tranquil, ſince the preſence of the legiſlative body would ſoon be reſtored to them, and the reſult would ſhow whether the legiſlative body was worthy and capable of preparing the means of happineſs."—General Buonaparte ſoon after appeared at the bar, accompanied by ſeveral officers of his ſtaff, and addreſſed the council in a ſhort ſpeech, in which he repreſented that the republic was periſhing, and they knew it, but that the decree they had juſt paſſed had ſaved it:—"Yes," ſaid he, "we will have a republic founded on true liberty, and national repreſentation. I ſwear it in my name, and that of my companions in arms." Moſt of the members preſent received theſe exclamations with applauſes; and the aſſembly broke up with ſhouts of "Live the Republic."

On the ſame day, the council of five hundred, having been informed, by a meſſage from the council of ancients, of the decree paſſed by the latter, adjourned in conſequence to the following day, when they were to meet at St. Cloud. In the ſitting which was held there on the 10th, they appointed a committee of ſeven members, commiſſioned to make a report on the ſituation of affairs. The ſitting was very tumultuous, many members exclaiming, "No dictator! No dictatorſhip!"—The ſecretary read a letter from the director Barras, ſtating that "the glory which accompanied the return of the illuſtrious warrior, to whom he had had the happineſs to open the career of renown, the diſtinguiſhed marks of confidence ſhown him by the legiſlative body, and the decree of the national repreſentation, had convinced him that the perils of liberty were then ſurmounted, and the intereſt of the armies ſecured,—and that he returned with joy to the rank of a ſimple citizen, happy to tranſfer, complete, and more reſpectable than ever, the deſtinies of the republic, of which he had been one of the depoſitories."

While ſome of the members were urging the propriety of chuſing another director in the room of Barras, general Buonaparte entered the hall, attended by ſome officers and grenadiers, and walked up towards the preſident. A violent agitation immediately enſued among the members, ſome of whom ruſhed precipitately from their ſeats, and endeavoured to ſeize him by the collar; others cried, "out-law him!" and one attempted to ſtab him with a dagger, but the blow was warded off by a grenadier. The tumult increaſed to a moſt violent degree. All the members quitted their ſeats;—the preſident, Lucien Buonaparte, laid down his badge of office on the table, and reſigned; upon which the

doors of the hall were opened, and an officer entered with a guard, exclaiming, "General Buonaparte orders the hall to be cleared."—The order was carried into effect in a few minutes.

The ſittings were reſumed in the evening, and Lucien Buonaparte took the preſident's chair. A decree was paſſed, aboliſhing the directory, and appointing a conſular government of three, namely, Sieyes, Buonaparte, and Roger Ducos, who all appeared, and took the oath to be faithful to the republic; after which, the council adjourned its ſittings till the 20th of February. On the ſame day, the council of ancients met alſo at St. Cloud, the proceedings of which were almoſt a copy of thoſe of the council of five hundred. They likewiſe voted the aboliſhing of the directory, the appointment of a conſular executive of three perſons, and then adjourned till the 20th of February. By the ſame decrees, ſixty-one members were expelled from the legiſlative body; and thus was the national repreſentation, and the vaunted conſtitution of the third year, overturned by one man, and the bayonets of a few ſoldiers.

A new conſtitution has ſince been framed, which has been accepted by the armies, and, apparently, at leaſt, by the people. By this conſtitution the whole of the executive, and, indeed, almoſt all other power, appears to be veſted in the firſt conſul, general Buonaparte. With what moderation or ſucceſs he may employ it, time muſt diſcover. He has completely quelled the inſurrections in the weſtern departments of France. He profeſſes an ardent deſire of peace, and his applications to the government of Great Britain on that ſubject have been already mentioned in our account of the affairs of England. He has made ſimilar applications to the court of Vienna, which, as Ruſſia appears to have withdrawn from the coalition againſt France, may poſſibly at length lead to a treaty of peace, though, at preſent, the moſt active preparations are making on both ſides for a renewal of the campaign.

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GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE LATE ROYAL FAMILY OF FRANCE.

Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French, was born Auguſt 24, 1754; married, April 9, 1770, to Maria-Antoinetta, archduchеſs of Auſtria, born November 2, 1755; ſucceeded his grand-father Lewis XV. May 10, 1774; crowned at Rheims, June 11, 1775; beheaded January 21, 1793.—The iſſue of Lewis XVI. and Maria-Antoinetta is,

1. Madame Maria-Thereſa-Charlotta, born December 19, 1778.

Brothers and Siſters to his late Majeſty.

1. Lewis-Staniſlaus-Xavier, count de Provence, born November 17, 1755; married, May 14, 1771, Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born September 2, 1753.

2. Charles-Philip, count d'Artois, born October 9, 1757; married, November 6, 1773, to Maria-Thereſa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born Jan. 21, 1756, by whom he has iſſue:

Louiſa-Antoine, born Jan. 24, 1778.
A princeſs, born Auguſt 5, 1780.
Another princeſs, born Jan 8, 1783.

3. Maria-Adelaide-Clotilda-Xaveria, born Sept. 23, 1759.

Plate XII

# The SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES from the best AUTHORITIES.

British Statute Miles. 5 10 15 20 25 30

Dutch Miles. 1 2 3 4 5 6

OCEAN

MANCHE

THE BROAD FOURTEENS

GERMANY

FRIESLAND

EAST

GRONINGEN

FRIESLAND

OVERYSSEL

GELDERS

UTRECHT

HOLLAND

WEST FRIESLAND

ZUYDER ZEE

AMSTERDAM

UTRECHT

DUTCH BRABANT

SOUTH BEVELAND

FLANDERS

TEXEL I.

Ameland

Schelling

Vlieland

Norderney

Borkum

Norden

Embden

Leer

Dockum

Leeuwarden

Harlingen

Eyerland

the Waert

Broad Sand

Groningen

Delfzyl

Lelienz

Nykerk

Mieden

Reysum

Oldehorn

Zutte Meer

Winschoten

Gropswolde

Appingha

Rheide

Lew R.

Laten

Mappen

Holthusen

Bentheim

Nienhaus

Oldenzeel

Deventer

Ryssen

Delfzen

Enschede

Almelos

Wechl R.

Borculoberg

Lochem

Zutphen

Harkeler

Bronkhorst

Doesburg

Dedzum

Lochtenpeerd

Arnhem

Wageningen

Rhenen

Vianen

Culemburg

Buren

Rhine R.

Wahal R.

Tiel

Nimeguen

Emmerick

Anholt

Boeckholt

Gennep

Griet

Weerdt

Cleves

Stallum

Munster

Breesort

Old Yssel

Gennep

Griet

Goch

Yssel R.

Carrendonck

Wesel

Rhinberg

Gelders

Venloo

Kessel

Ruremonde

Roermond

Keyen

Orsbroeck

Dusseldorf

Ghedrath

Embrich

Vise

Dalhem

Maestricht

Fauquemont

Rexem

LIEGE

DUCHY LIMBURG

Mouth of the Maes

Rotterdam

Schoonhoven

Schoonderwoert

Gouda

Delft

the Hague

Leyden

Woerden

Montfoort

Vianen

Wyck te Duerstede

Amersfort

Barnevelt

Utrecht

Rhine R.

Vecht R.

Amstel R.

Haerlem

Amsterdam

Muyden

Weesp

Naerden

Gooylandt

Gooy

Purmerend

Beverwyck

Edam

Monnikendam

I. Marken

Enkhuysen

Schokland

Urck

Swartesluys

Hasselt

Campen

Elburg

Harderwyck

Hattem

Putten

Wezel

Gortter Wood

Hummings Loo

Garderbroeck

Ucheter Wood

Hoorn

Alkmaer

Egmont

Medenblyck

Campendown

Het Meer

Wieringen

Callants Oog

Texel

Vlie

Vlieland

Ameland

Schelling

Eyerland

Harlingen

Leeuwarden

Dockum

Reysum

Sloten

Starrenburg

Inn de Lopen

Worcum

Broad Sand

Lagerwaey

Haule

Baerd

Currer R.

Beckhof

Linde R.

Leegio

Orreele

Steenwyck

Kuynder

Blackzyl

Wollenhoven

Meppel

Zwarte Sluys

Echter Groot

Yechter

Coevorden

Marsh of Bourtange

Emmen

Perse

Haverte

Swarte Sluys

Schoonebeek

Barde Moor

Wezel

Ommen

Vechte

Nienhaus

Coevorden

Oldenzeel

Benthem

Leer

Ems R.

Dollart

Lauwers Zee

Schoterland

Oosterlittens

Workum

Hindeloopen

Stavoren

Molkwerum

Lemmer

Joure

Sloten

Sneek

Bolsward

Workum

Hindeloopen

Stavoren

Molkwerum

Lemmer

Joure

Sneek

Bolsward

Franeker

Harlingen

Plate XIII.

# NETHERLANDS, from the best AUTHORITIES.

British Statute Miles

5 10 20 30 40

3 Longitude East from London 4 5 6

NORTH SEA

ZELAND

DUTCH BRABANT

AUSTRIAN

FLANDERS

FRENCH

HAINAULT

CAMBRESIS

LIEGE

LUXEMBURG

GUELDERS

OVERYSSEL

Ostend Nieuport Dunkirk Furnes Dixmude Bergues Cassel Bailleul Ypres Meum Courtray Oudenarde Ghent Bruges Dendermonde Alost Aeth Tournay Lisle Douay Arras Bethune Aire St Venant St Omer Gravelines Calais Boulogne Doullens Bapaume Cambray Valenciennes Conde Maubeuge le Quesnoy Landrecy Avesnes Philippine Sluys Middleburg Flushing Bergen op Zoom Breda Antwerp or Anvers Lillo Lillo Perle Calloo Lier Mechlin Malines or Mechlin Brussels Louvain Vilvorde Tirlemont Hasselt Maestricht Tongres Liege Huy Namur Dinant Philippeville Charlemont Mariembourg Rocroy Charleville Mezieres Sedan Bouillon Montmedy Longwy Thionville Luxemburg Spa Stavelo Limburg Verviers Aix la Chapelle Juliers Ruremonde Venlo Gelders Rhineberg Cleves Goch Grave Nimeguen Arnheim Utrecht Amersfort Deventer Zutphen Zwol Campen Harderwick Elburg Zirickzee Rotterdam Dort Leyden Amsterdam Haerlem Gouda Delft Hague Rotterdam Helvoetsluys Williamstadt Gertruydenberg Boisleduc Grave Nimeguen Cuyck Groeningen Erp Esch Haren Dongen Tilburg Oisterwyck Bergen op Zoom Breda Gertruydenberg Oudenbosch Steenbergen Thoren Tholen Zierickzee Goes Middleburg Flushing Sluys Philippine Ostend Mariekerke Dunkirk Furnes Dixmude Ypres Meum Courtray Oudenarde Ghent Bruges Dendermonde Alost Aeth Tournay Lisle Douay Arras Bethune Aire St Venant St Omer Gravelines Calais Boulogne Doullens Bapaume Cambray Valenciennes Conde Maubeuge le Quesnoy Landrecy Avesnes

# NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium, or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of the Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their ſituation in reſpect of Germany.

## EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 360 | between | 49 and 54 North latitude. |
| Breadth 260 | | 2 and 7 Eaſt longitude. |

They are bounded by the German Sea, on the north; by Germany, eaſt; by Lorraine and France, ſouth; and by the Britiſh Channel, weſt.

We ſhall, for the ſake of perſpicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the ſeventeen provinces under two great diviſions: firſt, the *Northern*, which contains the Seven United Provinces, uſually known by the name of HOLLAND: ſecondly, the *Southern*, containing the French, and late Auſtrian, Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly ſpeaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overyſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one ſovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces*.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 150 | between | 51 and 54 North latitude. |
| Breadth nearly the ſame. | | 3 and 7 Eaſt longitude. |

Containing 10,000 ſquare miles, with 275 inhabitants to each.

The following, from Templeman's Survey of the Globe, is the moſt ſatisfactory account we meet with of the geographical diviſion, including the Texel, and other iſlands:

* Since the conqueſt of Holland by the French, and the eſtabliſhment of a republic on the plan of that of France, the country, including the whole Dutch territory in the Netherlands, has been divided into fifteen departments, of which the following are the names and chief towns:

| DEPARTMENTS. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|
| Amſterdam | Amſterdam |
| Utrecht | Utrecht |
| Frieſeland | Leuwarden |
| Delft | Delft |
| The Ems | Groningen |
| Rees and Aa | Aſſen |
| North and Zuider Zee | Alkmaar |
| Sparen | Haarlem |
| Yſſel | Zwoll |
| Rhine | Zutphen |
| Merwe | Dort |
| Waal | Nimeguen |
| Scheldt | Middelburg |
| Mark | Breda |
| Meuſe | Bois le Duc |

| | Countries' Names. United Provinces. | Square Miles. | Len. | Br. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Calvinists. | Overyſſel | 1900 | 65 | 50 | Deventer |
| | Holland | 1800 | 84 | 52 | Amsterdam |
| | Guelderland | 986 | 50 | 40 | Nimeguen |
| | Frieſland | 810 | 44 | 34 | Leuwarden |
| | Zutphen | 644 | 37 | 33 | Zutphen |
| | Groningen | 540 | 45 | 37 | Groningen |
| | Utrecht | 450 | 41 | 22 | Utrecht |
| | Zealand | 303 | 29 | 24 | Middleburg. |
| | Texel and other iſlands. | 113 | | | |
| | Total | 7546 | | | |

Air, seasons, soil, and face of the country.] Theſe provinces lie oppoſite to England, at the diſtance of 90 miles, upon the eaſt ſide of the Engliſh Channel, and are only a narrow ſlip of low ſwampy land, lying between the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, and what the induſtry of the inhabitants have gained from the ſea by means of dykes, which they have raiſed, and ſtill ſupport, with incredible labour and expenſe. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and groſs, until it is purified by the froſt in winter, when the eaſt wind uſually ſets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moiſture of the air cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reaſon of their perpetually rubbing and ſcouring, and of the brightneſs and cleanlineſs in their houſes, ſo much taken notice of. The ſoil is unfavourable to vegetation; but, by the induſtry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for paſture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a deſirable country to live in, eſpecially to foreigners. Here are no mountains, nor riſing grounds, no plantations, purling ſtreams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or ſteeple, has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained, at certain diſtances, by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country ſerve as high-roads, are in the ſummer months highly offenſive to the ſmell.

Rivers and harbours.] The chief rivers of the United Provinces are,—the Rhine, one of the largeſt rivers in Europe; the Maeſe, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many ſmall rivers that join theſe, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing; that of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened.

Vegetable and animal productions, by sea and land.] The quantity of grain produced here is not ſufficient for home conſumption; but, by draining their bogs and marſhes, they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Daniſh cattle to a vaſt ſize; and they make prodigious quantities of the beſt butter and cheeſe in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, ſome fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber uſed there, and, indeed, moſt of the comforts, and even the neceſſaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of ſheep, whoſe wool is highly valued; and their horſes and horned cattle are of a larger ſize than in any other nation in Europe. It is ſaid that there are ſome wild bears and wolves here.

Storks build and hatch on their chimneys; but being birds of paſſage, they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fiſh is much the ſame as ours; but their ſea-fiſh is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fiſhing in deep water. No herrings viſit their coaſts; but they have many excellent oyſter-beds about the iſlands of the Texel, producing very large and well-taſted oyſters. Notwithſtanding all theſe inconveniences, the induſtry of the Hollanders furniſhes as great a plenty of the neceſſaries and commodities of life, and upon as eaſy terms (except to travellers and ſtrangers), as can be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the beſt peopled of any ſpot of the ſame extent in the world. They contain, according to the beſt accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and 2,758,632 inhabitants, according to a public account given in 1785; beſides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for ſo the inhabitants of the United Provinces are in general called), ſeem to be formed by their ſituation, and to ariſe from their natural wants. Their country, which is preſerved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains, with which it is everywhere interſected, muſt be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheeſe, are produced by a conſtant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the ſea, by their herring-fiſheries; for they diſpoſe of moſt of their valuable fiſh to the Engliſh, and other nations, for the ſake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, ſlow diſpoſitions, both of body and mind; and yet they are iraſcible, eſpecially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldneſs with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own intereſts; for, in all other reſpects, they are quiet neighbours and peaceable ſubjects.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, when they find their intereſts at ſtake; witneſs their ſea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though ſlow of underſtanding, are manageable by fair means. Their ſeamen are plain, blunt, but rough, ſurly, and an ill-natured ſort of people, and appear to be inſenſible of public ſpirit and affection for each other. Their tradeſmen in general are reckoned honeſt in their dealings, and very ſparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practiſed by old and young, of both ſexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are ſo unſociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every ſpecies of brutality. The Dutch have alſo been known to exerciſe the moſt dreadful inhumanities for intereſt abroad, where they thought themſelves free from diſcovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffenſive in their own country, which exhibits but few inſtances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both ſexes, it is owing, in a great meaſure, to the nature of their ſoil and climate. In general, all appetites and paſſions ſeem to run lower and cooler here than in moſt other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor warm enough for love; ſo that the ſofter paſſions ſeem no natives of this country; and love itſelf is little better

than a mechanical affection, arising from intereſt, conveniency, or habit; it is talked of ſometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of, rather than felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them, rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the moſt expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no leſs neceſſary ſcience of preſerving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to ſpend leſs than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this ſagacious people, that the common courſe of expenſe ſhould equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think, at leaſt, they have lived that year to no purpoſe; and the report of it uſed to diſcredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not ſo univerſal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewiſe practiſed by many of their faſhionable ladies, and ſome of them diſcover more propenſity to gallantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of thoſe inhabitants whoſe lot, if not riches, is at leaſt a comfortable ſufficiency, and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midſt of a world of taxes and contributions, they flouriſh and grow rich. From this ſyſtematic ſpirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the moſt obſtinate perſeverance, they ſucceeded in the ſtupendous works of draining their country of thoſe immenſe deluges of water, that had overflowed ſo large a part of it during many ages, while, at the ſame time, they brought under their ſubjection and command the rivers and ſeas that ſurround them, by dykes of incredible thickneſs and ſtrength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and ſafety of their territories, againſt the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable ſluices; by means of which, at the ſhorteſt notice, the moſt rapid inundations are let in, and they become, in a few hours, inacceſſible. From that frugality and perſeverance by which they have been ſo much characteriſed, they were enabled, though labouring under the greateſt difficulties, not only to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the moſt tender parts, by ſeizing her rich galleons, and forming new eſtabliſhments in Africa, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, at the expenſe of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a deſpicable province, a moſt powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the riſe of their military and marine eſtabliſhments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not leſs than 150,000 men, and upwards of eighty ſhips of the line. But a ſpirit of frugality being now leſs univerſal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of the Engliſh and French; and their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, rival thoſe of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diverſions of the Dutch differ not much from thoſe of the Engliſh, who ſeem to have borrowed from them the neatneſs of their drinking-booths, ſkittle and other grounds, and ſmall pieces of water, which form the amuſements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other muſical inventions. They are the beſt ſkaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to ſee the crowds in a hard froſt upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

DRESS.] Their dreſs formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, plain mobs, ſhort petticoats, and other oddities of women; all which, added to the natural thickneſs and clumſineſs of their perſons, gave them a very groteſque appearance. Theſe dreſſes now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly amongſt the ſea-faring people.

RELIGION.] Since the irruption of the French into Holland, the new government of the Batavian republic has declared that no religion is eſtabliſhed or paid by the ſtate; but prior to that event the eſtabliſhed religion here was the preſbyterian and Calviniſm; none but preſbyterians were admitted to any office or poſt in the government, excepting in the army; yet all religions and ſects were tolerated, and have their reſpective meetings or aſſemblies for public worſhip, among which the papiſts and Jews were very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be conſidered as a ſtriking inſtance of the benefits ariſing to a nation from univerſal toleration. As every man is allowed to worſhip God according to the dictates of his own conſcience, perſons of the moſt oppoſite opinions live together in the moſt perfect harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reaſon to complain of being oppreſſed on account of his religious principles; nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and, therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are aſſociated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the ſtate, with equal encouragement to arts and induſtry, and equal freedom of ſpeculation and inquiry.

LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of faſhion ſpeak Engliſh and French. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onſe Vader, die in de hemelin zyn, uwen naam worde gebeylight: uw'koningkryk kome: uwe wille geſchiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons heeden, ende vergeeft onſe ſchulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onſe ſchuldenaaren: ende enlaat ons neit in verſoeckinge, maer verlaſt ons van der booſen.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Eraſmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, ſtand almoſt at the head of modern learning. Haarlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magiſtrates keep two copies of a book intitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koſter in 1440; and the moſt elegant editions of the claſſics came from the Dutch preſſes of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controverſial divinity, which inſinuated itſelf ſo much into the ſtate, that, before principles of univerſal toleration prevailed, it had almoſt proved fatal to the government; witneſs the violent diſputes about Arminianiſm, free-will, predeſtination, and the like. Beſides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius, Gronovius, father and ſon, and Burman, are ranked among the principal of their numerous commentators upon the claſſics. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employments, in univerſities, church, or ſtate.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The univerſity of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largeſt and moſt ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, beſides a number of printed books, has two thouſand oriental manuſcripts, many

of which are in Arabic; and a large ſphere adapted to the Copernican ſyſtem, and moving by clock-work. Here is alſo a phyſic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The univerſity of Utrecht, in the province of the ſame name, was changed from a ſchool into an univerſity, in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other univerſities, being entirely ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city. The phyſic-garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the ſtudents, on the eaſt ſide of the city, juſt without the gate, is a beautiful mall, conſiſting of ſeven ſtraight walks, two thouſand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry from moſt countries in Europe, at theſe ſeminaries of literature; and as every one may live as he pleaſes, without being obliged to be profuſe in his expenſes, or ſo much as quitting his night-gown for either weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be ſeen here. The force of example is ſtrikingly exhibited at theſe univerſities; for frugality in expenſe, order, a compoſed behaviour, attention to ſtudy, and aſſiduity in all things, being the characteriſtics of the natives, ſtrangers who continue amongſt them ſoon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the ſtudents live as they pleaſe, and ſtudy as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their ſobriety and good manners, and the aſſiduity and ſucceſs with which they apply themſelves to their ſtudies. No oaths are impoſed, nor any religious teſts; ſo that Roman-catholic parents, and even Jews, ſend their children here with as little ſcruple as proteſtants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The prodigious dykes, ſome of which are ſaid to be ſeventeen ells in thickneſs, mounds, and canals, conſtructed by the Dutch, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it formerly ſuffered ſo much, are works equally ſtupendous and ſingular. A ſtone quarry near Maeſtricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. The ſtadthouſe of Amſterdam is perhaps the beſt building of that kind in the world: it ſtands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inſide is equally convenient and magnificent. Several muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the univerſity of Leyden; ſuch as the effigies of a peaſant of Ruſſia, who ſwallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is ſaid to have lived eight years after it was taken out of his ſtomach; but the truth of this ſeems to be doubtful. A ſhirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muſcles and tendons of the human body, curiouſly ſet up by profeſſor Stalpert Vander Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Amſterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the moſt commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almoſt beyond deſcription. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are ſtruck with the neatneſs and cleanlineſs that is every-where obſerved within doors. This city, however, labours under two great diſadvantages—bad air, and the want of freſh wholeſome water, which

obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain water in reſervoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amſterdam for commerce and wealth; its inhabitants are computed at 50,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the ſeat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the reſort of foreign ambaſſadors and ſtrangers of all diſtinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapneſs of its proviſions, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000; it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleaſure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their univerſities. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workſhop where Peter the Great of Muſcovy, in perſon, ſerved his apprenticeſhip to ſhip-building, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Guelderland is ſubject to Pruſſia, and the capital city Guelder.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND MANNER OF TRAVELLING. The uſual way of paſſing from town to town is by covered boats, called treckſcuits, which are dragged along the canal by horſes on a ſlow uniform trot, ſo that paſſengers reach the different towns, where they are to ſtop, preciſely at the appointed inſtant of time. This method of travelling, though to ſtrangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of theſe canals, an extenſive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of every country are conveyed at a ſmall expenſe into various parts of Germany and Flanders. A treckſcuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruim; the firſt for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amſterdam and other large cities, a traveller is aſtoniſhed when he beholds the effects of an extenſive and flouriſhing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant neat country-houſes, ſeated in the midſt of gardens and pleaſure grounds, intermixed with figures, buſts, ſtatues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amuſement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather ſpend much of their time there, ſmoking, reading, or viewing the paſſengers, to whom they appear complaiſant and polite.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce would comprehend that of almoſt all Europe. There is ſcarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a ſtate to which they do not trade. In this they are aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of their country, the cheapneſs of their labour, and, above all, by the water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe: and goods may be purchaſed here ſometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. The Eaſt-India company has had the monopoly of the fine ſpices for more than a hundred years, and, till the late and preſent wars with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Aſia. Here the viceroys appear in greater ſplendour than the ſtadtholder; and ſome of the Dutch ſubjects in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother country. They have other ſettlements in India; but the Iſland of Ceylon, and the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendez-vous of the ſhips of all nations, outward or homeward bound, have been lately taken by the Engliſh. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made ſome diſpoſitions to ſhip them-

ſelves off to their ſettlements in India; ſo great was their averſion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fiſheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they are diſtinguiſhed for their pottery, tobacco-pipes, Delft-ware, finely refined ſalt; their oil-mills, and ſtarch-manufactures; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damaſks; their ſaw-mills for timber, either for ſhipping or houſes, in immenſe quantities; their great ſugar-baking; their vaſt woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dreſſing; the great quantity of coin and ſpecie, aſſiſted by their banks, eſpecially by that of Amſterdam; their Eaſt-India trade; and their general induſtry and frugality. Their commerce, however, muſt have greatly ſuffered during the preſent war, and eſpecially ſince the French entered the country.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe, the capital is the Eaſt-India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immenſe wealth, divided forty per cent. and ſometimes ſixty, about the year 1660; at preſent the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided ſomewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent.; but the Dutch Weſt-India company the ſame year divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amſterdam was thought to be inexhauſtibly rich, and was under an excellent direction: it is ſaid, by ſir William Temple, to contain the greateſt treaſure, either real or imaginary, that is known any-where in the world. What may ſeem a paradox, is, that this bank is ſo far from paying any intereſt, that the money in it is worth ſomewhat more than the current caſh is in common payments. Mr. Anderſon ſuppoſes, that the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which are kept in the vaults of the ſtadthouſe, amount to thirty-ſix (though others ſay only to thirty) millions ſterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Before the French entered Holland, in January, 1795, the United Provinces formed a common confederacy, yet each province had an internal government or conſtitution independent of the others; this government was called the *ſtates* of that province; and the delegates from them formed the *ſtates-general*, in whom the ſovereignty of the whole confederacy was veſted; but though a province ſhould ſend two or more delegates, yet ſuch province had no more than one voice in every reſolution; and before that reſolution could have the force of a law, it muſt be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality in times of great danger and emergency has been ſet aſide. Every reſolution of the ſtates of a particular province muſt be carried unanimouſly.

The *council of ſtate* conſiſted likewiſe of deputies from the ſeveral provinces; but its conſtitution was different from that of the ſtates-general; it was compoſed of twelve perſons, whereof Guelderland ſent two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friſeland, one; Overyſſel, one; and Groningen, one. Theſe deputies, however, did not vote provincially, but perſonally. Their buſineſs was to prepare eſtimates, and ways and means for raiſing the revenue, as well as other matters that were to be laid before the ſtates-general. The ſtates of the provinces were ſtyled "Noble and Mighty Lords," but thoſe of Holland, "Noble and Moſt Mighty Lords;" and the ſtates-general, "High and Mighty Lords," or, "The Lords the States-general of the United Ne-

therlands;" or, "Their High Mightineſſes." Subordinate to theſe two bodies, was the chamber of accompts, which was likewiſe compoſed of provincial deputies, who audited all public accompts. The admiralty formed a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it was committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zeland, and Frieſland. In Holland the people had nothing to do either in chooſing their repreſentatives or their magiſtrates. In Amſterdam, which took the lead in all public deliberations, the magiſtracy was lodged in thirty-ſix ſenators, who were choſen for life, and every vacancy among them was filled up by the ſurvivors. The ſame ſenate alſo elected the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland.

The above particulars are mentioned, becauſe, without a knowledge of them, it is impoſſible to underſtand the hiſtory of the United Provinces from the death of king William to the year 1747, when the ſtadtholderſhip was made hereditary in the male and female repreſentatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner ſuperſeded the conſtitution already deſcribed. The ſtadtholder was preſident of the ſtates of every province; and ſuch was his power and influence, that he could change the deputies, magiſtrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he held the moulding of the aſſembly of the ſtates-general, though he had no voice in it: in ſhort, though he had not the title, he had more real power and authority than ſome kings; for, beſides the influence and revenue he derived from the ſtadtholderſhip, he had ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own. The preſent ſtadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, ſon of the late ſtadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princeſs royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751.

Though Holland under this conſtitution was called a republic, yet its government was far from being of the popular kind: nor did the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at firſt view be apprehended. It was indeed rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people were not ſuffered to have the leaſt ſhare in any part of the government, not even in the choice of the deputies. It may alſo be obſerved, that very few perſons in this ſtate dared ſpeak their real ſentiments freely; and they were generally educated in principles ſo extremely cautious, that they could not relinquiſh them when they entered more into public life.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cauſes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is ſaid that juſtice is no where diſtributed with more impartiality.

After the departure of the ſtadtholder, on the conqueſt of Holland by the French, in 1795, a convention was aſſembled to adminiſter the government, and frame a conſtitution for the new Batavian republic. The firſt plan they preſented was rejected by the people in the primary aſſemblies; but another was afterwards drawn up, which was accepted. According to this conſtitution, which is a cloſe copy of that of France, the government is veſted in a legiſlative body, conſiſting of two chambers, and a directory: the preſidents of the two chambers are changed every fortnight, and a part of the legiſlative body and the directory go out every year, as in France.

Revenues.] The late government of the United Provinces proportioned their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Thoſe taxes conſiſted of an almoſt general exciſe, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth money; ſo that the public revenue amounted annually to

about two millions and a half ſterling. The province of Holland paid nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the ſeven United Provinces contributed towards the public expenſe:

| | |
|---|---|
| Of every million of ducats, the province of Holland contributes - - - - | 420,000 |
| Zealand - - - - - - | 130,000 |
| Frieſland - - - - - - | 170,000 |
| Utrecht - - - - - - | 85,000 |
| Groningen - - - - - | 75,000 |
| Guelderland - - - - - | 70,000 |
| Overyſſel - - - - - | 50,000 |

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amſterdam furniſhed upwards of 320,000. The taxes in theſe provinces are ſo heavy, and ſo many, that it is not without reaſon, a certain author aſſerts, that the only thing which has eſcaped taxation there is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandiſe are exceedingly low. The expenſes occaſioned by the preſent war, and the contributions required by their new allies the French, cannot but have conſiderably increaſed their taxes. In the year 1797, after the defeat of the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, a tax of eight per cent. on all income was impoſed for the re-eſtabliſhment of their navy. A forced loan of three per cent on all capital and property, and a tax of ſeven per cent. beſides, on all income, have likewiſe been lately decreed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces, in time of peace, commonly amounts to about forty-thouſand: twenty-five thouſand of whom ſerve in garriſons; many of them are Scots and Swiſs; and in time of war they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army was veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom was the field-marſhal general. The marine force of the United Provinces uſed to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets: but their navy has for many years been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increaſe it; and they have great reſources for that purpoſe. At preſent it muſt be in a very feeble and ſhattered ſtate, in conſequence of the ſurrender of admiral Lucas's ſquadron at the Cape of Good Hope, the victory gained by admiral Duncan, and eſpecially the ſurrender of the fleet in the Texel to admiral Mitchel; ſince which, however, a ſtatement has been publiſhed, which makes their naval force amount to fifteen ſhips of the line and ſeven or eight frigates.

ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of the moſt powerful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into two branches; one for papiſts, and the other for proteſtants. This branch has a houſe at Utrecht, where they tranſact their buſineſs. The nobles of Holland, if they propoſe a ſon to be a knight, enter his name in the regiſter, and pay a lage ſum of money to the uſe of the poor maintained by the order; and the candidate ſucceeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's ſide. The enſign is a croſs pattie, enamelled white, ſurmounted with another black; above the croſs is a ball twiſted, white and black; it is worn pendent to a broad black watered ribband, which is worn about the neck. The ſame croſs is embroidered on the left breaſt of the upper garment of each knight.

ARMS.] The enſigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, *Or*, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlaſs,

and with the other a bundle of ſeven arrows cloſe bound together, in alluſion to the ſeven confederate provinces, with the following motto; *Concordia res parvæ creſcunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Auſtrian Netherlands.

William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, hereditary ſtadtholder, captain-general and admiral of the Seven United Provinces, and knight of the garter, was born March 19, 1748; married, in 1767, the princeſs Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, of Pruſſia, born in 1751; by whom he has iſſue:

1. Frederica-Louiſa-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 28, 1770; married to the hereditary prince of Brunſwick.

2. William-Frederic, hereditary prince, born Aug. 2, 1772; married, Oct. 1, 1791, to princeſs Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, of Pruſſia.

3. William-George-Frederic, born Feb. 15, 1774.

The ſtadtholder has one ſiſter, Wilhelmina-Carolina, born 1743, and married to the prince of Naſſau Wielbur.

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# FRENCH AND LATE AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 200 | between | 49 and 52 North latitude. |
| Breadth 200 | between | 2 and 7 Eaſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the North; by Germany, Eaſt; by Lorraine, Champagne, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the Engliſh Sea, Weſt.

As this country ſo lately belonged to three different powers, the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, we ſhall continue to diſtinguiſh the provinces and towns belonging to each ſtate*.

### 1. Province of BRABANT.

| Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. | | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Dutch Brabant - - - | Boisleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom | N. | 1374 |
| | Grave, N. E. | | |
| | Lillo, Steenbergen | N.W. | |

* The whole of the Auſtrian Netherlands are now in poſſeſſion of the French, who have decreed them an integral part of their republic, and divided them into nine departments, of which the following are the names and chief towns:

| DEPARTMENTS. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|
| The Dille | Bruſſels |
| Two Nethes | Antwerp |
| Ourthe | Liege |
| Lys | Bruges |
| Lower Meuſe | Maeſtricht |
| Sambre and Meuſe | Namur |
| Foreſts | Luxemburg |
| Scheldt | Ghent |
| Jemappe | Mons. |

| Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. | | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2. Late Auſtrian Brabant - - | Bruſſels, E. long. 4 deg. 28 min. N. lat. 50-51. | | 1892 |
| | Louvain<br>Vilvorden<br>Landen | in the middle. | |

2. ANTWERP, and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it; they were ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S.E.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Chief Towns - - - - - - | Limburg, E. long. 65. N. lat. 50-37. late ſub. to Auſtria | | 312 |
| | Maeſtricht<br>Dalem<br>Fauquemont, or<br>Valkenburg | ſub. to the Dutch | 300 |

5 Province of LUXEMBURG.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Late Auſtrian Luxemburg - | Luxemburg, E. long. 6-8. N. lat. 49-15. | | 2408 |
| French Luxemburg - - - | Thionville<br>Montmedy | S. E. | 292 |

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, late ſubject to Auſtria.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Chief Towns - - - | Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe, E. long. 4-50. N. lat. 50-30. | | 425 |
| | Charleroi on the Sambre. | | |

7. Province of HAINAULT.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Late Auſtrian Hainault | Mons, E. long. 3-33. N. lat. 50-30.<br>Aeth<br>Enghien | in the middle | 640 |
| French Hainault—now in the department of the North - - - | Valenciennes<br>Bouchain<br>Condé<br>Landrecy | S.W. | 800 |

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Subject to France—now in the department of the North - - - | Cambray, E. of Arras, E. long. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15. | | 150 |
| | Crevecœur, of S. Cambray. | | |

9. Province of ARTOIS.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Subject to France—now in the department of the Straits of Calais - | Arras, S.W. on the Scarpe, E. long. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20. | | 990 |
| | St. Omers, E. of Boulogne | | |
| | Aire, S. of St. Omers | | |
| | St. Venant, E. of Aire | | |
| | Bethune, S.E. of Aire | | |
| | Terouen, S. of St. Omers | | |

## 10. Province of FLANDERS.

| Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|
| Dutch Flanders - - | Slus, N.<br>Axel, N.<br>Hulſt, N.<br>Sans van Gent, N. | 280 |
| Late Auſtrian Flanders | Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. lon. 3 36. N. lat. 51.<br>Bruges, Oſtend, Newport — N.W. near the ſea<br>Oudenard on the Scheldt<br>Courtray, Dixmude — on the Lis<br>Ypres, N. of Liſle<br>Tournay on the Scheldt<br>Menin on the Lis | 190 |
| French Flanders—now in the department of the North - - - - | Liſle, W. of Tournay<br>Dunkirk, on the coaſt E. of Calais<br>Douay, W. of Arras<br>Mardike, W. of Dunkirk<br>St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes<br>Gravelines, E. of Calais | 760 |

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coaſt of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the ſeaſons more ſettled, both in winter and ſummer, than they are in England. The ſoil and its produce are rich, eſpecially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of paſture; and Flanders itſelf has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and ſometimes of England. The moſt barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the late Auſtrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and induſtry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richeſt and moſt beautiful ſpot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleaſantneſs of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in latter times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is ſtill a moſt deſirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, with ſcarcely a ſingle hill in it: Brabant, and the reſt of the provinces, conſiſt of little hills and valleys, woods, incloſed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maeſe, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheldt, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Oſtend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimſtone, are found in Luxemburg and Limburg, as are ſome marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a ſpecies of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of foſſile nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for ſo the inhabitants of Flanders and the Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt,

honeſt people; but their manners are ſomewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight deſperately in defence of their country; at preſent they make no great figure. The late Auſtrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them, at a medium, at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diverſions are the ſame with thoſe of the peaſants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere French men and women in both of theſe particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dreſs like the Dutch boors, and their language is the ſame; but the better ſort of the people ſpeak French, and dreſs in the ſame taſte.

RELIGION.] Before the conqueſt of this country by the French, the eſtabliſhed religion was the Roman catholic; but proteſtants, and other ſects, were not moleſted.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics were Cambray, Malines or Mechlin: the biſhoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omers, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEANNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The ſocieties of Jeſuits formerly produced the moſt learned men in the Auſtrian Low Countries, in which they had many eligible ſettlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant hiſtorian and poet. The Flemiſh painters and ſculptors have great merit, and form a ſchool by themſelves. The works of Reubens and Vandyke cannot be ſufficiently admired. The models for heads of Flamingo, or the Fleming, particularly thoſe of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engroſſed tapeſtry-weaving to themſelves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omers. The firſt was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this univerſity had the privilege of preſenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in theſe provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are alſo found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, in all their cities, give evidence of their former grandeur. In 1607, ſome labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals, of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed ſeveral large volumes, publiſhed by different authors, but in times when the Auſtrian Netherlands were far more flouriſhing than at preſent. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner a void. Bruges, formerly ſo noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconſiderable place. Oſtend is a tolerably convenient harbour for traders; and ſoon after the rupture between Great Britain and Holland, during the American war, became more opulent and populous. In 1781, it was viſited by the emperor, who granted to it many privileges and franchiſes, and the free exerciſe of the proteſtant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a ſtrong garriſon town. The ſame may be ſaid of Charleroi and Namur.

Louvain, the capital of the Auſtrian Brabant, inſtead of its flouriſhing manufactures and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Bruſſels retains ſomewhat of its ancient manufactures; and having been the reſidence of the governor or viceroy of the Auſtrian Netherlands, is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapeſtry and thread-lace ſhop, with the houſes of ſome bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the firſt exploits of the Dutch, ſoon after they threw off the Spaniſh yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by ſinking veſſels, loaded with ſtone, in the mouth of the Scheldt; thus ſhutting up the entrance of that river to ſhips of large burthen. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-ſufferers in the cauſe of liberty; but they foreſaw that the proſperity of their own commerce was at ſtake.

It may be obſerved here, that every gentleman's houſe is a caſtle or *château*; and that there are more ſtrong towns in the Netherlands than in all the reſt of Europe; but ſince the decline of their trade by the riſe of the Engliſh and Dutch, theſe towns are conſiderably diminiſhed in ſize, and whole ſtreets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, proviſions are extremely good and cheap. Travelling is ſafe, reaſonable, and delightful, in this luxurious country. The roads are generally broad cauſeways, and run for ſome miles in a ſtraight line, till they terminate with the view of ſome noble buildings. At Caſſel, in the French Netherlands, may be ſeen thirty-two towns, itſelf being on a hill.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the Netherlands are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithſtanding the boaſted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that ſpecies called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. Theſe manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Auſtrian Netherlands were conſidered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal houſe, as being ſovereign of the whole, was the ſole director and ſummoning prince. This circle contributed its ſhare to the impoſts of the empire, and ſent an envoy to the diet, but was not ſubject to the judicatories of the empire. At preſent they muſt be conſidered as annexed to France, and under the ſame conſtitution and government.

REVENUES.] Theſe aroſe from the demeſne lands and cuſtoms: but ſo much was the trade of Auſtrian Flanders reduced, that they are ſaid not to have defrayed the expenſe of their government. The French Netherlands brought in a conſiderable revenue to the nation.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, *Or*, a lion ſable, langued gules.

HISTORY.] The ſeventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine, was called Gallia Belgica, by the Romans. About a century before the Chriſtian æra, the Battæ removed from Heſſe to the marſhy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maeſe. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great reſpect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military ſervices. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces firſt, as they paſſed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and afterwards being erected into ſmall governments, the heads of which were deſpotic within their

own dominions, Batavia and Holland became independent of Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandſons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the ſupreme authority was lodged in the three united powers, of a Count, the Nobles, and the Towns. At laſt, they were ſwallowed up by the Houſe of Burgundy, anno 1433.

The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the Houſe of Auſtria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon, Philip II, who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occaſioned a general inſurrection, the counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it; and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples were forced by perſecution to join the malcontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the "Council of Blood," in order to ſuppreſs them; and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters at firſt were thought ſo deſpicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perſeverance and courage were ſuch, under the prince of Orange, and with the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent ſtate, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES. By their ſea-wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II. they juſtly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the Houſe of Auſtria, which for ſome ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealouſy was directed againſt that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip; the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy againſt Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 has been diſcuſſed in the hiſtory of that country, as alſo the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the Engliſh in the year 1780. As it was urged that they refuſed to fulfil the treaties which ſubſiſted between them and Great Britain, ſo all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever exiſted. By the war, their trade ſuffered conſiderably; but Negapatnam, in the Eaſt Indies, is the only place not reſtored to them by the late peace.

Probably, to their ſeparation from Great Britain, may be attributed the recent differences between the States-General and the emperor Joſeph II. who, from the exhauſted ſtate of ſeveral of the European powers, ſeemed to have a favourable opportunity of accompliſhing his ambitious deſigns. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demoliſh the

Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended ſo deſperately in the time of queen Anne; and he now ſeemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their reſpective nations was propoſed to the ſtates; but before this could take place, he began to commit ſome acts of hoſtility, and extended his dominions a little by way of preliminary. Two ſmall forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were ſeized upon, as well as ſome part of the marſhes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negotiations, he alſo demanded that the Dutch guard-ſhip ſhould be removed from before Lillo, in acknowledgment that one of the prerogatives of his Imperial majeſty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This being complied with, the negotiations were opened at Bruſſels, on the 24th of April, 1784, when ſeveral other demands of ſmall portions of territory and little ſums of money were made; the moſt material requiſition being the town of Maeſtricht, and its territory. For ſome time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters ſeemed faſt tending towards an open rupture. On the 23d of Auguſt, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commiſſioners at Bruſſels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maeſtricht, in conſideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt, in both its branches, to the ſea; and, in token of his confidence of the good intentions of the ſtates, he determined to conſider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any inſult on his flags, in the execution of theſe purpoſes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hoſtility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. To prevent all injuries contrary to the inconteſtable rights of his Imperial majeſty, and to leave no doubt of his unalterable reſolution to adhere to the propoſitions contained in the ultimatum, his majeſty could not forbear determining to ſend to ſea, from Antwerp, a ſhip under his flag, after having declared long enough before in what manner he ſhould conſider all violent oppoſition that might be made to the free paſſage of the ſaid ſhip.

The ſhip was ſtopped in its paſſage, as was another, ordered to ſail from Oſtend up the Scheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to diſmiſs the veſſels, if the captains would engage to return to their reſpective places, and not continue their voyage on the river; which they refuſed to do. This the emperor called inſulting his flag, and declared to all foreign courts, he could not look on this fact but as "an effective declaration of war on the part of the republic." In anſwer to their conduct in ſtopping the Imperial ſhips, which the emperor ſtyled an inſult to his flag, and by which he declared them to have begun hoſtilities, the Dutch miniſters at Bruſſels, in a paper delivered to that court, proteſted "that as their ſole aim was to ſupport their uncontrovertible right, they could not, with any appearance of juſtice, be conſidered as guilty of a hoſtile aggreſſion."

Great preparations were made for immediate hoſtilities againſt the Dutch; and ſeveral hundred of the Imperialiſts, with ſome field-pieces, advancing towards the counterſcarpe of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the ſluices to be opened, November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of flat country around the forts on the Scheldt, to preſerve them from an attack. Both parties exerted themſelves, in caſe they ſhould be called forth to open a campaign in the next ſpring; but France and Pruſſia interpoſed as negotiators and mediators, and ſucceeded in bringing

about a reconciliation. However, from the conduct of the emperor in the partition of Poland, and in demoliſhing the fortifications of the barrier places in the Netherlands, and demanding a free navigation of the Scheldt, and to the Eaſt Indies—advancing from one pretenſion to another, it is apparent that the moſt ſolemn treaties will be no longer obſerved by ſome courts and ſtateſmen, than till they have an opportunity, with ability, to break them.

During the progreſs of their contentions with the emperor, this country was greatly diſtreſſed by the moſt unhappy animoſities within themſelves, which it may be proper in this place briefly to ſtate. The continued ſeries of loſſes which they had ſuſtained in the late war with Great Britain was peculiarly diſgraceful to the republic. All their ſettlements in the Weſt Indies fell into the hands of the Britiſh, without reſiſtance; their ſhips were captured, and trade ruined; while the diſaſters of the war excited the animoſity of the two factions againſt each other to the higheſt degree. The patriots, or ariſtocratic party, attributed theſe defeats to the ſtadtholder, who had openly expreſſed his predilection for the Engliſh, at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very artfully reverted. They accuſed him of having adviſed the aggreſſion of the Engliſh, and of contributing to their ſucceſs by treachery. The evident inequality of the ſtruggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arſenals of the republic, the frequent and public reclamations made by the prince and by the council of ſtate on the ſubject of that deficiency, were forgotten; and the wilful miſconduct of the ſtadtholder was boldly alleged by the patriots as the ſole cauſe of that miſerable ſucceſſion of defeat and diſgrace, which immediately followed the commencement of hoſtilities. Whilſt theſe were the recriminations of the patriots, the monarchical, or Orange party, accuſed their antagoniſts of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

This produced various accuſations and vindications between the two parties, until at laſt, in the month of May, 1786, the ſtadtholder gave orders to ſeize on Vreeſwick, a poſt of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its ſituation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland; containing alſo the ſluices, by which both theſe provinces might be overflowed. This brought on a ſkirmiſh between the troops of the ſtadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other unimportant hoſtilities took place; but while the military operations were carried on in ſuch a languid manner, a violent tumult happened at Amſterdam, in which ſeveral perſons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of moſt of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the ſtadtholder; but notwithſtanding this apparent advantage, and ſome others which afterwards took place, the diſputes ſtill continued with extreme violence, inſomuch that the princeſs of Orange herſelf was ſeized, and detained priſoner a night by the patriots.

Theſe moſt turbulent commotions were, however, at laſt ſettled by the king of Pruſſia, who, for this purpoſe, marched an army into the territories of the United States, and took poſſeſſion of the city of Rotterdam, and ſome other places, without reſiſtance. This ſo much overawed both parties, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the ſtates of Holland. By this, the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the ſtadtholderſhip, as well as

the hereditary government of each province, in the Houſe of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives ſettled in the years 1747 and 1743; by which all attempts to diſturb the domeſtic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appeared to be effectually guarded againſt by the cloſe union that ſubſiſted between thoſe two important powers.

The late revolution in Holland, in conſequence of the irruption of the French, and the expulſion of the ſtadtholder from that country, has already been briefly narrated in our hiſtory of France, to which we muſt refer the reader.

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After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained poſſeſſed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, a general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706; after which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their ſovereign; and his daughter, the late empreſs-queen, remained poſſeſſed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and would have poſſeſſed them from that time, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the Engliſh, in favour of the Houſe of Auſtria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be ſeen in the preceding general table of diviſions.

It was not long after the ſettlement of the diſturbances in Holland, that the provinces of the Netherlands belonging to the emperor determined to aſſert their liberty. The quarrel originated, like thoſe in other countries, about the prerogatives aſſumed by the emperor, and which were more extenſive than his ſubjects wiſhed to allow; and the emperor making uſe of force to aſſert his claims, the territories of the United States became a refuge for the diſcontented Brabanters.

On the part of his Imperial majeſty, the inſurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was iſſued by count Trautmanſdorff, governor of Bruſſels, intimating, that no quarter ſhould be given them, and that the villages in which they concealed themſelves ſhould be ſet on fire. General Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become maſter of them by aſſault, and would put every ſoul he found in them to the ſword.

In oppoſition to this ſanguinary proclamation, the patriots iſſued a manifeſto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority, by his various oppreſſions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the conſtitution. Baniſhment was threatened to ſuch as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though ſtrict orders were given that no crowds or mobs ſhould be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing ſo, ſhould be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogſtraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. Almoſt every town in Auſtrian Flanders ſhowed its determination to oppoſe the emperor, and the moſt enthuſiaſtic attachment to military affairs diſplayed itſelf in all ranks of men. Even the eccleſiaſtics manifeſted their valour on this occaſion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was ſoon raiſed, which, after ſome ſucceſsful ſkirmiſhes, made themſelves maſters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Oſtend; ſo that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Bruſſels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which

the patriots were victorious, though with the loſs of 1000 men, beſides women and children. It reflects indelible diſgrace on the Imperial character, as well as on the commanders of the troops, that they committed the moſt dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder and deſtroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the mercileſs ſavages not only deſtroyed the men, but killed women and ſucking infants. Some of them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them againſt the walls of the houſes. By theſe monſtrous cruelties, they inſured ſucceſs to their adverſaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almoſt inſtantly declared in their favour. They publiſhed a memorial for their juſtification, in which the gave, as reaſons for their conduct, the many oppreſſive edicts with which they had been haraſſed ſince the death of the empreſs-queen; the unwarrantable extenſion of the Imperial prerogatives, contrary to his coronation-oath, and which could not be done without perjury on his part; the violence committed on his ſubjects, by forcibly entering their houſes at midnight, and ſending them priſoners to Vienna, to periſh in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly maſſacred his ſubjects; he had conſigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a deſign of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. Theſe things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and eaſily impoſe upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation, rouſed by repeated injuries, and animated by deſpair, would riſe ſuperior to thoſe laſt efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reaſons they declared themſelves INDEPENDENT, *and for ever releaſed from the Houſe of* AUSTRIA.

The emperor, now perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, publiſhed proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmoſt contempt. The patriots made the moſt rapid conqueſts; inſomuch, that before the end of the year they were maſters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Notwithſtanding they thus appeared for ever ſeparated from the Houſe of Auſtria, yet the death of Joſeph, happening ſoon after, produced ſuch a change in the conduct of government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the ſituation of affairs; and the mild and pacific diſpoſition of Leopold, who ſucceeded his brother, the conciliatory meaſures he adopted, together with the mediation of Great Britain, Pruſſia, and Holland, made a material alteration in the affairs of theſe provinces; and a convention, which was ſigned at Reichenbach, on the 27th of July, 1790, by the above-mentioned high contracting powers, had for its object the re-eſtabliſhment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his Imperial majeſty.

Their majeſties of Great Britain and Pruſſia, and the ſtates-general of Holland, became, in the moſt ſolemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his ſucceſſors for the ſovereignty of the Belgic provinces, now reunited under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of ſigning, which was executed at the Hague, on the 10th of December, 1790.

The incurſion of the French into theſe provinces, their complete conqueſt, and the final ceſſion of them to France by the treaty of Campo Formio, have already been related in our hiſtory of the late tranſactions of that people, which will ſuperſede the neceſſity of any repetition of it in this place.

Plate XIIII.

# GERMANY
FROM THE BEST
AUTHORITIES.

British Miles 69½ to a Degree.
50 100 150

German Leagues 15 to a Degree.
10 20 30

0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20 Longitude East from London

54 52 50 48 46 44 32 30 16

GERMAN OCEAN
BALTIC SEA
ENGLAND
FRANCE
NETHERLANDS
SWITZERLAND
ITALY
GERMANY
POLAND
HUNGARY
BOHEMIA
AVIA
SILESIA
PRUSSIA
SAXONY
BAVARIA
SWABIA
FRANCONIA
RHINE CIRCLES
UNITED PROVINCES
DENMARK
VENICE
GULF OF Venice
ISTRIA
Amsterdam
Yarmouth
London
Dover
Ostend
Calais
Brussels
Dieppe
Paris
Liege
Namur
Bouillon
Verdun
Metz
Toul
Strasburg
Worms
Mentz
Frankfort
Coblentz
Cologn
Juliers
Aix
Maestricht
Spa
Treves
Deux Ponts
Spire
Manheim
Heidelberg
Philipsburg
Hall
Oetingen
Ratisbon
Stutgard
Donawert
Ingolstadt
Tubingen
Ulm
Augsburg
Rotweil
Friburg
Basil
Schaffhausen
Memmingen
Kempten
Constance
Bern
Munster
Osnaburg
Bremen
Verden
Lunenburg
Hamburg
Staden
Embden
Delmenhorst
Diepholt
Hove
Teckelnburg
Bentheim
Ravensburg
Minden
Ritberg
Paderborn
Cleves
Gelder
Meurs
Ham
Arensburg
Dusseldorf
Cassel
Waldeck
Hombergh
Marpurg
Hatzfeld
Bonn
Giessen
Nassau
Idstein
Reinfels
Darmstadt
Wertheim
Erpach
Fulda
Hennebergh
Coburg
Culembach
Schweinfurt
Bamberg
Wurtzburg
Nurenburg
Mergentheim
Hallbron
Inspach
Leuchtenberg
Amberg
Chamb
Ratisbon
Straubing
Landshut
Passaw
Burghausen
Mindelheim
Memmingen
Kempten
Waldsburg
Werdenfels
Lindau
Montfort
Salzburg
Inspruck
Brixen
Tirol
Trent
Aquileia
Gorit
Triest
St. Viets
Laybach
Laremund
Clagenfurt
Gurk
Draburg
Gratz
Cilley
Neustat
Judenburg
Gemund
Linz
Lambach
Budweis
Pisek
Tabor
Pilsen
Kaurzim
Znaim
VIENNA
Presburg
Buda
Olmutz
Iglaw
Brinn
Hradisch
Tyrnau
Ratibor
Cracow
Oppeln
Breslaw
Ohlau
Brieg
Glogau
Sagan
Oels
Lignitz
Goerlitz
Budissin
Leipsick
Meissen
Torgau
Wittenberg
Zerbst
Dessau
Bernberg
Anhalt
Hall
Gottingen
Schwartzburg
Eisnach
Gotha
Weimar
DRESDEN
Altenburg
Saalfeldt
Plawen
Leutmerit
Kohingsgrat
Saatz
PRAGUE
Egra
Tepla
Elbogen
Budweis
Crossen
Francfort
Landsperg
Custrin
Berlin
Potsdam
Brunswic
Halberstadt
Wolfenbuttel
Hildersheim
Magdeburg
Stendal
Ulitzen
Dannebergh
Berleberg
Gartz
Stettin
Stargard
Colberg
Rugen
Lauenburg
Dantzic
Thorn
Warsaw
Posnan
Wismar
Gustrow
Schwerin
Lubec
Rostock
Wolgast
Gripswald
Tammin
Meldorp
Gluckstat
Kiel

# GERMANY.

## Situation and Extent.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 600<br>Breadth 520 | between | 5 and 19 East long.<br>45 and 55 North lat. | 181,631. |

Germany and Bohemia contain 191,573 square miles, with 135 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.] THE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the East; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the West, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the Maese.

Grand Divisions.] The divisions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. We shall therefore adhere to those that are most generaly received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or Southern, and the Lower, or Northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Of these, three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

| | |
|---|---|
| The northern circles | Upper Saxony<br>Lower Saxony<br>Westphalia |
| The circles in the middle | Upper Rhine<br>Lower Rhine<br>Franconia |
| The southern circles | Austria<br>Bavaria<br>Swabia. |

## 1. Upper SAXONY Circle.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Pomerania, in the North | Prus. Pomerania, I.E. | Stettin, E. l. 14-50. N. lat. 53-30. | 4820 |
| | Swed. Pomer. NW. | Stralsund | 2991 |
| Brandenburg in the middle, sub. to its own elector, the king of Prussia | Altmark, west<br>Middlemark<br>Newmark, east | Stendel<br>Berlin, Potsdam<br>Frankf. Custrin. | 10,910 |

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Saxony Proper, in the south, sub. to its own elector | Duchy of Saxony, N. | Wirtenberg | 7500 |
| | Lusatia, marq. east | Bautzen, Gorlitz | |
| | Misnia, marq. south | Dresd. E. lon. 13-36. N. lat. 51. | |
| | | Meissen | |
| Thuringia, langr. west | | Erfurt | 3620 |
| The duchies of | Saxe Meinungen | Meinungen | 240 |
| | Saxe Zeitz | Zeitz | |
| | Saxe Altenb. S.E. | Altenburg | |
| | Saxe Weimar, W. | Weimar | 1700 |
| | Saxe Gotha, W. | Gotha | |
| | Saxe Eisn, S. W. | Eisnach | |
| | Saxe Saalfeldt | Saalfeldt. | |
| The counties of | Schwartz. W. | Schwartzburg | 96 |
| | Belchin. N. | Belchingen | |
| | Mansfel. N. | Mansfeldt. | |
| The duchies of | Hall, mid. sub. to Prus. | Hall | 210 |
| | Saxe Naumburg, subject to its own duke | Naumburg | |
| The counties of | Stolberg, north-west | Stolberg | |
| | Hohenstein, west | Northausen | |
| Principality of - | Anhalt, north - - - | Dessau, Zerbst<br>Bernberg Kothen | 966 |
| Bishopric of - - | Saxe Hall, west - - | Hall | |
| | Voigtland, south subject to the elector of Saxony | Plawen | 696 |
| Duchy of - - - | Mersburg, midde, subject to the elector of Saxony | Mersburg | 336 |

Subject to their own dukes

## 2. Lower SAXONY Circle.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Holstein D. north of the Elbe - | Holstein Proper, N. | Kiel, sub. to Holstein Gottorp | 1850 |
| | Ditmarsh, west | Meldorp, sub. to Denm. | |
| | Stormaria, south | Gluckstadt, sub. to Denm. | |
| | Hamburg, a sovereign state | Hamburg, E. l. 10-35. N. l. 54. an Imperial city | |
| | Wagerland, east | Lubec, an Imperial city. | |
| Lauenburg Duchy, north of the Elb, subject to Hanover - - | | Lauenburg | 450 |
| Subject to the duke of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle - - | D. Brunswic Proper, D. Wolfenbuttle | Brun. E. l. 10-32. N. lat. 52-30. Wolfenbuttle | 860 |
| | C. Rheinstein south | Rheinstein | |
| | C. Blanckenburg | Blanckenburg | |
| Subject to the elector of Hanover, K. of G. Britain. | D. Calenberg | Hanover | 8024 |
| | D. Grubenhagen | Grubenhagan | |
| | Gottingen | Gottingen | |
| Luneburg D. sub. to Hanover - | D. of Luneburg Proper | Luneburg | |
| | D. Zell | Zell, E. lon. 10. N. lat. 52-52. | |
| Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north - - - | | Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-30. an Imperial city | 2040 |
| | | Verden - - - | 692 |

Partly sub. to Denmark, and partly to the Duke of Holstein Gottorp

middle

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mecklenburg D. | D. Schwerin, north, subject to its duke | Schwerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54. | 4400 |
| | D. Gustrow, north, subject to its duke | Gustrow | |
| Hildersheim bishopric, in the middle, subject to its bishop - - - - | | Hildersheim, an Imperial city | 1302 |
| Magdeburg duchy, south east, subject to the king of Prussia - - - | | Magdeburg | 1535 |
| Halberstadt duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east | | Halberstadt | 450 |

## 3. WESTPHALIA Circle.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| North Division. | Embden C. or East Fries. sub. to the king of Prussia | | Embden, an Imperial city | 720 |
| | Oldenburg, C. | sub. to the K. of Den. | Oldenburg | |
| | Delmenhurst | | Delmenhurst | |
| | Hoye | subject to Hanover | Hoye | 624 |
| | Diepholt | | Diepholt | 220 |
| Western Division. | Munster B. sub. to its bp. | | Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52. | 3600 |
| | Paderborn B. sub. to its bp. | | Paderborn | 800 |
| | Osnaburg, B. sub. to its bp. | | Osnaburg | 870 |
| | Lippe C. sub. to its count | | Lippe, Pyrmont | 400 |
| | Minden D | sub. to Pru. | Minden | 495 |
| | RavensbergC. | | Ravensberg | 525 |
| | Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologn | | Arensburg | 1444 |
| | Tecklenb. C. | sub. to their respective counts | Tecklenburg | 840 |
| | Ritberg C. | | Ritberg | 120 |
| | Schauenb. C. | | Schauenburg. | |
| Middle Division. | Cleves D. sub. to the king of Prussia | | Cleves, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 51-40. | 630 |
| | Berg D. | sub. to the elector Palatine | Dusseldorf | |
| | Juliers D. | | Juliers, Aix | 1300 |
| | Mark C. sub. to Prussia | | Ham | 980 |
| | Liege, B. sub. to its own bp. | | Liege, E. lon. 5-56. N. lat. 50-40. | 1942 |
| | | | Huy | |
| | Benth. C. sub. to Hanover | | Bentheim | 418 |
| | Steinfort C. sub. to its count | | Steinfort | 114 |

## 4. Upper RHINE Circle.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Hesse - | Hesse Cassel, landg. N. | Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. lat. 51-20. | 3500 |
| | Hesse Marpurg, landg. N. | Marpurg | |
| | Hesse Darmstadt, landg. | Darmstadt | 396 |
| | Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves. | | |
| | Hesse Homberg | Homberg | |
| | Hesse Rhinefeldt | Rhinefeldt | 180 |
| | Wonfeldt | Wonfeldt. | |

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Counties in the Wetteraw, south | Nassau Dillenburg | Each county subject to its own count of the House of Nassau. | Dillenburg | 1200 |
| | Nassau Diets | | Diets | |
| | Nassau Hadamar | | Hadamar | |
| | Nassau Kerberg | | Kerberg | |
| | Nassau Siegen | | Siegen | |
| | Nassau Idstein | | Idstein | |
| | Nassau Wielburg | | Wielburg | |
| | Nassau Wisbaden | | Wisbaden | |
| | Nassau Bielsteid | | Bielsteid | |
| | Nassau Otweiler | | Otweilder | |
| | Nassau Usingen | | Usingen | |
| Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state | | | Frankfort on the Maine, E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an Imperial city | 120 |
| County of Erpach, sub. to its own count. | | | Erpach, east - - | 230 |
| Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state | | | Spire on the Rhine, an Imperial city | 245 |
| Duchy of Zweybrucken, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts | | | Deuxponts in the Palat. | 700 |
| County of Catzenelbogen, sub. to Hesse Cassel, | | | Catzenelbogen on the Lhon. | |
| Counties of - | Waldeck, sub. to its own count | | Waldeck | 368 |
| | Solms, sub. to its own count | | Solms | |
| | Hanau, sub. to Hesse Cassel | | Hanau | 432 |
| | Isenburg, sub. to its own count | | Isenburg | |
| | Sayn | | Sayn | |
| | Wied | | Wied | |
| | Witgenstein | | Witgenstein | |
| | Hatzfield | | Hatzfield | |
| | Westerburg | | Westerburg. | |
| Abbey of Fulda, subject to its abbot - - - - - - | | | Fulda | 621 |
| Hirschfeld, subject to Hesse Cassel - - - - - - - | | | Hirschfeld. | |

## 5. Lower RHINE Circle.

| Divisions. | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|
| Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, sub. to the elector Palatine | Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20. Philipsburg, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine. | 2618 |

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Archbishoprics and electorates of - - - | Cologne | Subject to their respective electors. | Cologne, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50. | |
| | | | Bonn, on the Rhine | 1964 |
| | Mentz | | Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenb. on the Maine | 1405 |
| | Triers | | Triers on the Mosselle | 1765 |
| Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state | | | Worms on the Rhine, an Imperial city | 154 |
| Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke. | | | Simmeren. | |
| Counties of - | Rhinegravestein | | Rhinegravestein | |
| | Meurs, subject to Prussia | | Meurs | |
| | Veldentz, subject to the elector Palatine | | Veldentz | |
| | Spanheim | | Creutznach | |
| | Leyningen | | Leyningen. | |

## 6. FRANCONIA Circle.

| | Divisions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bishoprics of | Wurtsburg, W. | Sub. to their ref. bishops | Wurtsburg | 1645 |
| | Bamberg, N. | | Bamberg | 1700 |
| | Aichstat, S. | | Aichstat | 513 |
| Marquisates of | Cullenback, north-east | Sub. to their respective margraves | Cullenback | 900 |
| | Anspach, S. | | Anspach | 1000 |

| Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|
| Principality of Henneberg, N. - - - - - - | Henneberg. | |
| Duchy of Coburg, N. subject to its duke - - | Coburg | 406 |
| Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke - | Hilburghausen. | |
| Burgravate of Nuremberg, S.E. an independent state - - - - - - - - | Nuremberg, an Imperial city | 640 |
| Territory of the great-master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S.W. - | Mergentheim | 56 |
| Counties of Rheineck, W. | Rheineck | |
| Bareith, E. sub. to its own mar. | Bareith | 188 |
| Papenheim, S. sub. to its own C. | Papenheim | |
| Wertheim, W. | Wertheim | |
| Cassel, middle | Cassel | 120 |
| Schwartzburg, subject to its own count | Schwartzburg middle | 96 |
| Holach, S.W. | Holach | 220 |

## 7. AUSTRIA Circle.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the House of Austria.

| | Divisions. | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Archduchy of Austria proper | Vienna, E. long. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints, Ens, west | | 7106 |
| Duchies of | Stiria and Cilley, C. | Gratz, Cilley, S.E. | 5000 |
| | Carinthia | Clagenfurt, Lavem. S.E. | 3000 |
| | Carniola | Laubach, Zerknitz, Trieste, St. Veits, S.E. | 4576 |
| | Goritia | Gorits, S.E. | |
| County of Tyrol - - - | Inspruck | S.W. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland | 3900 |
| Bishoprics of - Brixen | Brixen | | 1300 |
| Trent | Trent | | 210 |

## 8. BAVARIA Circle.

| Subdivisions. | | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Duchy of Bavaria Proper on the Danube - | Subject to the elector Palatine as successor to the late elector of Bavaria | Munich, E. long. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landschut, Ingoldstat. north west: Donawert [Ratis. N. an Imperial city.] Amberg [Sultzbach], north of the Danube | 8500 |
| Palatinate of Bavaria - | | | |
| Freisingen, subject to its bishop. | | Freisingen - - - - - | 240 |
| Bishopric of Passau, sub. to its own bishop - - - - - - - - | | Passau, E. of the Danube | 240 |

| Subdiviſions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Duchy of Neuberg, ſubject to the elector Palatine - - - - | | Neuberg, W. of the Danube | 450 |
| Archbiſhop of Saltzburg, ſub. to its own archbiſhop - - - | | Saltzburg, S.E. Hallen | 2540 |

## 9. SWABIA Circle.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Duchy of Wurtemburg, ſubject to the duke of Wurtemburg Stutgard | | Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40. Tunbingen, Hailbron | On or near the Neckar | 3364 |
| Marquiſates of | Baden Baden | ſub. to their own reſpective marg. | Baden | On or near the Rhine | 258 |
| | Baden Durlach | | Durlach | | 490 |
| Biſhopric of Augſburg, ſubject to its own biſhop - - - - - | | | Augſburg, an Imperial city, Hochſtet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube | | 765 |
| Territory of Ulm, a ſovereign ſtate | | | Ulm on the Danube, an Imperial city | | 280 |
| Biſhopric of Conſtance, ſub. to its own biſhop, under the Houſe of Auſtria | | | Conſtance, on the Lake of Conſtance | | 60 |
| Principalities of | Mindelheim | Subject to their reſpective princes | Mindelh. S. of Augſ. | | 216 |
| | Furſtenberg | | Furſtenberg, S. | | 788 |
| | Hohenzollern | | Hohenzollern, S. | | 150 |
| Counties of - | Œting | | Œting, eaſt | | 580 |
| | Königſeck | | Königſeck, ſouth-eaſt | | |
| | Hohenrichburg | | Gemund, north | | 379 |
| Baronies of - | Waldburg | | Waldburg, ſouth-eaſt | | |
| | Limpurg | | Limpurg, north | | 120 |
| Abbies of - | Kempten | | Kempten on the Iller. | | |
| | Buchau | | Buchau, S. of the Danube | | |
| | Lindau | | Lindau, on the Lake of Conſtance.—Imperial cities. | | |
| Imperial cities, or ſovereign ſtates | | | Nordlingen N. of the Danube. Memmingen, eaſt. Rotweil, on the Neckar, and many more. | | |
| Subject to the houſe of Auſtria - - | Black Foreſt, N.W. | | Rhinefeldt and Lauffenb. | | 480 |
| | Rhinefeldt, C. | | | | |
| | Marquiſate of Burgau | | Burgau, eaſt | | 650 |
| | Territory of Briſgau on the Rhine | | Friburg and Briſac | | 380 |

Name.] Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as has been already mentioned: and the word Germany is of itſelf but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the moſt probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger* or *Gar*, and *Man*, which, in the ancient Celtic, ſignifies a warlike man. The Germans went by various other names, ſuch as Allemanni, Teutones; which laſt is ſaid to have been their moſt ancient deſignation; and the Germans themſelves call their country Teutſchland.

Climate, seasons, and soil.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the ſituation, north, eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, but according to the improvement of the ſoil, which has a vaſt effect on the climate. The moſt mild and

ſettled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal diſtance from the ſea and the Alps. In the north it is ſharp; towards the ſouth it is more temperate.

The ſoil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and ſterile, though in others it is ſurpriſingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving; which muſt neceſſarily change the moſt barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The ſeaſons vary as much as the ſoil. In the ſouth and weſtern parts, they are more regular than thoſe that lie near the ſea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The northern and eaſtern winds are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the ſeaſons of Germany and thoſe of Great Britain.

Mountains.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and thoſe which ſeparate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia, from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

Forests.] The great paſſion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar is the reaſon why, perhaps, there are more woods and chaſes yet ſtanding in Germany than in many other countries. The Hercynian foreſt, which in Cæſar's time was nine days' journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Moſt of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in every part of this country; almoſt every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chaſe or park, adorned with pleaſure-houſes, and well ſtocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are ſeven or eight ſorts, as roebucks, ſtags, &c. of all ſizes and colours, and many of a vaſt growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound ſo much alſo with wild fowl, that in many places the peaſants have them, as well as veniſon, for their ordinary food.

Rivers and lakes.] No country can boaſt a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head ſtands the Danube or Donau, ſo called from the ſwiftneſs of the current, and which ſome pretend to be, naturally, the fineſt river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is ſo broad, that, in the wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, ſhips of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it paſſes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vaſt number of cataracts and whirlpools; its ſtream is rapid, and its courſe, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weſer, and Moſelle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are thoſe of Conſtance and Bregentz. Beſides theſe, are the Chiem-ſee, or the Lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-ſee, in the duchy of Carniola, whoſe waters often run off, and return again, in an extraordinary manner.

Beſides theſe lakes and rivers, in ſome of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of ſtanding water, which are next to peſtilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable diſorders.

Mineral waters and baths.] Germany is ſaid to contain more of theſe than all Europe beſides. The Spa waters, and thoſe of Seltzer and Pyrmont, are well known. Thoſe of Aix-la-Chapelle are ſtill more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little

Bath; and the ſprings of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. Each of theſe, and many other waters, have their partiſans in the medicinal faculty; and if we believe them, cure diſeaſes internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are likewiſe reported to perform wonders in almoſt all diſeaſes. The mineral ſprings at the laſt-mentioned place are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and therefore they are incloſed. Carlſbad and Baden baths have been deſcribed and recommended by many great phyſicians, and uſed with great ſucceſs by many royal perſonages. It is, however, not improbable, that great part of the ſalutary virtues aſcribed to theſe waters is owing to the exerciſes and amuſements of the patients, and numbers of the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amuſement and converſation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Auſtria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, ſalt-mines, and ſalt-pits, are found in Auſtria, Bavaria, Sileſia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethyſts, jaſper, ſapphire, agate, alabaſter, ſeveral ſorts of pearl, turquois ſtones, and the fineſt of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greateſt princes and virtuoſi. In Bavaria, Tyrol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, ſlate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, and bitumen; beſides other foſſils. In ſeveral places are dug up ſtones, which to a ſtrong fancy repreſent different animals, and ſometimes trees, or the human form. Many of the German circles furniſh coal-pits: and the *terra ſigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote againſt poiſon.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries already deſcribed; but naturaliſts are of opinion, that, had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the moſt fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its preſent, what we may call rude ſtate, proviſions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witneſs the prodigious armies which the moſt uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richeſt and moſt fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rheniſh and Moſelle wines differ from thoſe of other countries in a peculiar lightneſs, and deterſive qualities, more ſovereign in ſome diſeaſes than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large. Their fleſh, and the hams made of it, are preferred by many even to thoſe of Weſtmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is ſaid to be the moſt voracious of all animals. Its prey is almoſt every thing that has life, which it can manage, eſpecially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they ſurpriſe artfully and devour greedily. On theſe the glutton feeds ſo ravenouſly, that it falls into a kind of a torpid ſtate, and, not being able to move, he is killed by the huntſmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horſes; but their horſes, oxen, and ſheep, are not comparable to thoſe of England, probably owing their want of ſkill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Ger-

many are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of finging birds, which are ſent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. As the empire of Germany is a collection of ſeparate ſtates, each having a different government and police, it is difficult to ſpeak with preciſion as to the number of its inhabitants; but the following eſtimate has been formed of them:

| | |
|---|---|
| Moravia | 1,100,000 |
| Auſtrian Sileſia | 200,000 |
| High and Low Luſatia | 380,000 |
| Circle of Auſtria | 4,150,000 |
| Bavaria | 1,148,438 |
| Archbiſhopric of Saltzburg | 250,000 |
| Wurtemburg | 565,890 |
| Baden | 200,000 |
| Augſburg | 40,000 |
| Bamberg and Wurtſburg | 400,000 |
| Nuremburg | 70,000 |
| Juliers and Berg | 260,000 |
| Munſter | 130,000 |
| Oſnaburg | 116,664 |
| The Pruſſian Eſtates in the Circle of Weſtphalia | 550,000 |
| Naſſau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman | 74,699 |
| Oldenburg | 79,071 |
| Mentz | 314,000 |
| Palatinate of Rhine | 289,614 |
| Heſſe Caſſel and Darmſtadt | 700,000 |
| Fulda | 7,000 |
| Frankfort on the Maine | 42,600 |
| High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia | 1,326,041 |
| Swediſh Pomerania | 100,549 |
| Pruſſian Pomerania | 462,970 |
| Brandenburg | 1,007,232 |
| Gotha | 77,898 |
| Schwartzburg, Magdeburg, and Mansfeldt | 271,461 |
| Halberſtadt and Hohenſtein | 130,761 |
| Hanover | 750,000 |
| Brunſwic | 166,340 |
| Holſtein | 300,000 |
| Mecklenburg | 220,000 |
| Mulhauſen | 13,000 |
| Hamburg | 100 000 |
| | 17,166,868 |

This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany; and when the inferior parts are added, the number in all, including the kingdom of Bohemia, is now computed at twenty-ſix millions; and when the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population muſt naturally increaſe among them.

The Germans in their perſons are tall, fair, and ſtrong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and ſhape that are ſo bewitching in ſome other countries.

Both men and women affect rich dreſſes, which in faſhion are the ſame as in France and England: but the better ſort of men are exceſſively fond of gold and ſilver lace, eſpecially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dreſs from the French and Engliſh, only they are not ſo exceſſively fond of paint as the former. At ſome courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers' families, in many of the German towns, dreſs in a very different manner, and ſome of them inconceivably fantaſtic; but in this reſpect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dreſs from what they did thirty or forty years ago. As to the peaſantry and labourers, they dreſs, as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumſtances. The ſtoves made uſe of in Germany are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned in our account of other northern nations, and are ſometimes made portable, ſo that the ladies carry them to church. In Weſtphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they ſleep between two feather-beds, with ſheets ſtitched to them, which, by uſe, becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who ſqueeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but, in general, the circumſtances of the common people are more comfortable than thoſe of their neighbours.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. The higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhow. The Germans in general are thought to want animation, as their perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, eſpecially the Italians, ſuch as Montecuculi and Prince Eugene, they have done great things both againſt the Turks and the French. The Imperial arms have ſeldom made any remarkable figure againſt either of thoſe two nations, or againſt the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This poſſibly might be owing to the arbitrary obſtinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two laſt wars the Auſtrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not well-known, eſpecially in watch and clock making, jewellery, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, ſome of which we ſhall have occaſion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind; but ſuch exceſſes are now leſs common. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been given. But no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour, that a ſharper, in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation. All the ſons of noblemen inherit their fathers' titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogiſts of that country. The German huſbands are not quite ſo complaiſant as thoſe of ſome other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do

they ſeem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are ſaid to be ſomewhat too fond of gaming. Many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary eſtate than a high-ſounding title, eaſily enter into their armies, and thoſe of other ſovereigns. Their fondneſs for title is attended with many other inconveniences,—their gentlemen of property think the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, below their attention, and that they ſhould degrade themſelves by being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domeſtic diverſions of the Germans are the ſame as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In ſummer, people of faſhion repair to places of public reſort, and drink the waters. As to their field diverſions, beſides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriouſly, a great part of their time being ſpent in feaſting and carouſing; and in winter, when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tigers, ſwans, ſcallop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits, dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſtag, or other creature, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribbands, and bells. As this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night-time, ſervants ride before the ſledges with torches; and a gentleman, ſtanding on the ſledge behind, guides the horſe.

Religion.] Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German biſhops were poſſeſſed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as of the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their ſuperſtition. The Bohemians were the firſt who had an idea of reformation, and made ſo glorious a ſtand, for many years, againſt the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the ſacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romiſh church. This was in a great meaſure owing to the celebrated Engliſhman, John Wickliffe, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himſelf, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliffe was ſeconded by John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithſtanding the emperor's ſafe-conduct, were infamouſly burnt at the council of Conſtance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther *, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, though it ſtruck at the chief abuſes in the church of Rome, was thought in ſome points (particularly that of conſubſtantiation, by which the real body of Chriſt, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is ſuppoſed to be taken in the ſacrament) to be imperfect. Calviniſm †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practiſed in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany, and is the religion profeſſed in the territories of the king of Pruſſia, the

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to diſpute the doctrines of the Romiſh church 1517, and died, 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he ſettled at Geneva, in 1539, where he eſtabliſhed a new form of church diſcipline, which was ſoon after embraced by ſeveral nations and ſtates, who are now denominated preſbyterians, and, from their doctrinal articles, Calviniſts. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

landgrave of Heſſe, and ſome other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some even aſſert, that the numbers of proteſtants and papiſts in the empire are now almoſt equal. Germany, particularly Moravia, and the Palatinate, as alſo Bohemia, is over-run with ſectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At preſent, the modes of worſhip and forms of church government are, by the proteſtant German princes, conſidered in a civil rather than a religious light. The proteſtant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the popiſh ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP SEES.] Theſe are differently repreſented by authors: ſome of whom repreſent Vienna as being a ſuffragan to the archiepiſcopal ſee of Saltzburg; and others, as being an archbiſhopric, but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbiſhop of Mentz, who has under him twelve ſuffragans; but one of them, the biſhop of Bamberg, is ſaid to be exempted from his juriſdiction:—Triers has three ſuffragans;—Cologne has four;—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburg has nine, beſides Vienna;—and Bremen three.

At different periods ſince the Reformation, it has been found expedient, to ſatisfy the claims of temporal princes, to ſeculariſe the following biſhop-ſees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberſtadt, Minden, Lubec, and Oſnaburg, which laſt goes alternately to the houſes of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at preſent held by his Britannic majeſty's ſecond ſon. Such of thoſe ſees as were archbiſhoprics are now conſidered as duchies, and the biſhoprics as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies much in its dialect in different provinces. Latin and French are the moſt uſeful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-noſter is as follows: *Unſer Vater, der du biſt im himmel, geheiliget werde dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geſchehe, wie im himmel alſo auch auf erden. Unſer tæglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unſere ſchulden, als wir vergeben unſern ſchuldigern. Und fuehre uns nicht in verſuchung. Sondern erlœſe uns von dem bœſen. Der dein iſt das reich, und die krafft, und die herrlichkeit, in ewigkeit.* Amen.

LEARNING. LEARNED MEN, AND UNIVERSITIES.] No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taſte for reading, eſpecially in the proteſtant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almoſt every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number; thouſands of theſes and diſputations are annually publiſhed; for no man can be a graduate in their univerſities who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt. In this country there are 36 univerſities, of which 17 are proteſtant, 17 Roman-catholic, and two mixed; beſides a vaſt number of colleges, gymnaſia, pedagogies, and Latin ſchools. There are alſo many academies and ſocieties for promoting the ſtudy of natural philoſophy, the belles-lettres, antiquities, painting, ſculpture, architecture, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *Naturæ Curioſi*: the academy of Sciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipſic, at Duiſburg, at Gieſen, and at Hamburg. At Dreſden and Nuremberg are academies for painting: at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augſburg is the Imperial Franciſcan academy of fine arts; to which we may add the Latin ſociety at Jena. Of the public libra-

ries the moſt celebrated are thoſe of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weymar, and Leipſic.

Many of the Germans have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in various branches of learning and ſcience. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Stork, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of phyſic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heiſter, of anatomy and ſurgery; and Newman, Zimmermann, Pott, and Margraff, of chemiſtry. In aſtronomy, Kepler deſervedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the firſt writers on the law of nature and nations, and has alſo merit as an hiſtorian. But at the end of the laſt century, and the beginning of the preſent, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious ſects, was ſo much involved in diſputes about ſyſtematic theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language alſo, and the ſtyle of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; which, though they were not underſtood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of ſuperiority to the writers, and therefore much affected: for an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet diveſted themſelves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberleſs quotations from all ſorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true teſt of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantic, and were, in conſequence, diſregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730, that the proſpects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a better philoſophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottſched, an author and profeſſor at Leipſic, who was greatly honoured by Frederic II. king of Pruſſia, introduced a better taſte of writing, by publiſhing a German grammar, and by inſtituting a literary ſociety for poliſhing and reſtoring to its purity the Germany language, and by promoting the ſtudy of the belles-lettres. We may conſider this as the epocha from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language upon learned ſubjects, and to free themſelves, in a conſiderable degree, from that verboſeneſs and pedantry by which they had been characteriſed. About this time, ſeveral young men in the univerſity of Leipſic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publiſhing ſome periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of perſons of literary taſte. Some of theſe gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high eſtimation.

The ſtyle of preaching among the German divines alſo now underwent a conſiderable change. They began to tranſlate the beſt Engliſh and French ſermons, particularly thoſe of Tillotſon, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by theſe models; and Moſheim, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have publiſhed ſermons which would do credit to any country; although they ſtill retain too much of that prolixity for which German divines and commentators have been ſo much cenſured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are ſtill too much diſtinguiſhed by vulgar language, abſurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reaſon and good ſenſe.

Some of the Engliſh periodical writings, ſuch as the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, being tranſlated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of pe-

riodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the firſt and beſt was publiſhed at Hamburg, under the title of "The Patriot;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late biſhop of Saliſbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Hamburg, and a conſiderable maſter of the German language. The late profeſſor Gillert, who is one of the moſt elegant of the German authors, and one of the moſt eſteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taſte. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inſpire ſentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verſe, his letters, and his moral romances, are ſo much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them almoſt by heart. His comedies are alſo very popular; though they are rather too ſentimental, and better adapted for the cloſet than for the ſtage.

Haller, the famous phyſician, Hagedorn, Uz, Croneigh, Leſſing, Gleim, Gerſtenberger, Kleiſt, Klopſtock, Ramler, Zacarie, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronegh, Leſſing, Wieland, Wieſe, Schiller, and Kotzebue, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his ſatirical works, immortaliſed his name among the Germans; though ſome of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German cuſtoms, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleaſure by perſons of other nations. Geſner, whoſe Idylls and Death of Abel have been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, and favourably received, is better known to an Engliſh reader.

In chemiſtry and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conſpicuous; and Reimarus, Zimmermann, Abt, Kæſtner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philoſophical writings. Buſching is an excellent geographical writer; and Maſco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, Gebaur, and Schmidt, have excelled in hiſtorical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Moſt of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or elſe very dry and unintereſting; which perhaps is owing to education, to falſe delicacy, or to a certain taſte of knight-errantry which is ſtill predominant among ſome of their novel-writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Leſſing, are familiar with thoſe who are ſkilled in this branch of literature. In eccleſiaſtical, philoſophical, and literary hiſtory, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Moſheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in ſacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiſke, Erneſti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne, have publiſhed ſome of the beſt editions of Greek and Latin claſſics.

It is an unfavourable circumſtance for German literature, that the French language ſhould be ſo faſhionable in the German courts inſtead of the German, and that ſo many of their princes ſhould give it ſo decided a preference. Frederic II. king of Pruſſia, had ordered the Philoſophical Tranſactions of his royal ſociety at Berlin, from the beginning of its inſtitution, to be publiſhed in the French tongue; by which, ſome of the Germans think, his majeſty caſt a very undeſerved reproach upon his native language.

With reſpect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themſelves very well. Germany has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if firſt in-

vented in Holland, was ſoon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the firſt inventors of great guns, as alſo of gunpowder, in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians,—Handel, Bach, Haſſe, and Haydn, of whom Handel ſtands at the head, having arrived at the ſublime of muſic.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occaſional eſtimates of REVENUES AND POPULATION.

This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly ſo in Germany, on account of the numerous independent ſtates it contains.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, and exhibits, perhaps, the moſt illuſtrious example of ſudden improvement that this age can boaſt of, yet, during the ſeven years' war, it was found a place of no ſtrength, and fell twice, almoſt without reſiſtance, into the hands of the Auſtrians, who, had it not been for the politeneſs of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preſerves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, beſides the royal palace, has many other ſuperb edifices; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calviniſt churches, beſides a catholic one. Its ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious, and built in a very regular manner; but the houſes, though neat without, are ill finiſhed, and ill furniſhed within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-houſe is alſo a beautiful ſtructure: and the arſenal, which is handſomely built, in the form of a ſquare, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are ſundry manufactures in Berlin, and ſeveral ſchools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Buſching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garriſon. In the ſame year, and according to the ſame author, there were no fewer than 443 ſilk looms, 149 of half ſilks, 2858 for woollen ſtuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for ſilk ſtockings, and 310 for worſted ones. In the year 1774, the number of inhabitants was 104,874, of whom 5381 were French, 1162 Bohemians, and 3958: the garriſon, reckoning their attendants, amounted to 29,540 ſouls, which may be added to the number of the inhabitants. They have here manufactures of tapeſtry, gold and ſilver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is by nature the richeſt country in Germany, if not in Europe; it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the lateſt accounts of the Germans themſelves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, eſtimating each rix-dollar at four ſhillings and ſix-pence, amounts to 1,350,000l. This ſum is ſo moderate, when compared to the richneſs of the ſoil (which, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, produces even diamonds, and almoſt all the precious ſtones to be found in the Eaſt Indies and elſewhere, and the variety of ſplendid manufactures), that the Saxon princes appear to have been the moſt moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

Dreſden, the elector of Saxony's capital, is remarkable for its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations; it is beautifully ſituated on both ſides the Elbe, and is the ſchool of Germany for ſtatuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign

commerce, carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dreſden, by the lateſt accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipſic in Upper Saxony, 46 miles diſtant from Dreſden, is ſituated in a pleaſant and fertile plain on the Pleiſſe, and the inhabitants are ſaid to amount to about 40,000. There are alſo large and well-built ſuburbs, with handſome gardens. Between theſe ſuburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompaſſes the city. Mulberry-trees are alſo planted in the town-ditches: but the fortifications ſeem rather calculated for the uſe of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The ſtreets are clean, commodious and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with ſeven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchant houſes, and 192 manufactories of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipſic has long been diſtinguiſhed for the liberty of conſcience allowed here to perſons of different ſentiments in religion. Here is an univerſity, which is ſtill very conſiderable, with ſix churches for the Lutherans (theirs being the eſtabliſhed religion, one for the Calviniſts, and a chapel in the caſtle for thoſe of the Romiſh church. The univerſity-library conſiſts of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is alſo a library for the magiſtrates, which conſiſts of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuſcripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curioſities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, ſtands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. It contains about twelve hundred houſes, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on ſome manufactures; and in its neighbourhood are the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and ſixty market-towns, beſides villages. The city and ſuburbs of Bremen, belonging, by purchaſe, to the ſaid elector, contain about fifty thouſand inhabitants, who have a conſiderable trade by the Weſer. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures; but, in general, it muſt be remarked, that the electorate has ſuffered greatly by the acceſſion of the Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain. It may be proper to mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the ſeculariſed biſhopric of Oſnaburg, lying between the rivers Weſer and Ems. The chief city, Oſnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The whole revenue of the biſhopric amounts to about 30,000l.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all ſects of Chriſtians and Jews are tolerated; but the magiſtracy is Lutheran. Since Sileſia fell under the Pruſſian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, being very inconſiderable before. The manufactures of Sileſia, which principally centre at Breſlau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is, by ſome, ſaid to bring his Pruſſian majeſty in near a million ſterling; but this ſum ſeems be exaggerated; if, as other authors of note write, it never brought in to the Houſe of Auſtria above 500,000l. yearly.

Frankfort on the Maine, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from another of the ſame name on the Oder, is ſituated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country on the river juſt mentioned, by which it is divided in-

to two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhauſen. The former of theſe, being the largeſt, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thouſand houſes. The fortifications, which are both regular and ſolid, form a decagon, or figure conſiſting of ten baſtions, faced with hewn ſtone; the ditches are deep, and filled with freſh water; and all the out-works are placed before the gates. Frankfort is the uſual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is alſo a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any ſuburbs; but the ſtreets are generally narrow, and the houſes are moſtly built of timber and plaſter, and covered with ſlate; though there are ſome handſome private ſtructures, of a kind of red marble, that deſerve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compeſtel and Fronhof, the Trierſhof, the Cullenhof, the German-houſe, an auguſt edifice, ſituated near the bridge over the Maine, the Heſſe Darmſtadthof, the palace of the prince de la Tour, and the houſes of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn. There are likewiſe three principal ſquares.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Auſtria, and, being the reſidence of the emperor, is ſuppoſed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a ſtrong city, and the princes of the Houſe of Auſtria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent univerſity, a bank, which is in the management of its own magiſtrates, and a court of commerce, immediately ſubject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a ſixth part of the town; but the ſuburbs are larger than the city. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its ſquares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curioſities. Among its rich convents, is one of the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Auſtria; and one of the ſix gates of this city is called the Scots' gate, in remembrance of ſome notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the ſuburbs, are computed at about three hundred thouſand; and the encouragement given them by their ſovereigns has rendered this city the rendez-vous of foreigners.

The ſtreets, except thoſe in the ſuburbs, are narrow and dirty. The houſes of this city are generally of ſtone, five or ſix ſtories high, and flat-roofed. They have three or four cellars under one another, with an open ſpace in the middle of each arched roof, for the communication of air; and from the lowermoſt of all, there is a tube to the top, to let in air from the ſtreet. The winds often blow ſo ſtrong, that it is troubleſome to walk the ſtreets. A remarkable prerogative of the ſovereign here, is, that the ſecond floor of every houſe belongs to him, and is aſſigned to whomſoever he thinks proper: and hence there is no part of Germany where lodging is ſo dear as at Vienna. An odd cuſtom prevails here of putting iron bars to all the windows, up to the very tops of the houſes; which makes them all look like ſo many priſons. The houſes and furniture of the citizens are greatly diſproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, ſquares, and other public buildings; but the exceſſive impoſts laid by the Houſe of Auſtria upon every community in its dominions muſt always keep the manufacturing part of its ſubjects poor.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. In deſcribing the mineral and other ſprings, a great part of this

article, which is of itſelf very copious, has been already anticipated. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curioſities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The tun at Heidelberg holds 800 hogs-heads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, from which ſtrangers are ſeldom ſuffered to retire ſober. Vienna itſelf is a curioſity; for here you ſee the greateſt variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any-where, as Greeks, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuſcripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe; but the antiquity of ſome of them is queſtionable, particularly a New Teſtament in Greek, ſaid to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewiſe many thouſand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vaſt collection of other curioſities of art and nature. The vaſt Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and, above all, town-houſes in Germany, are very curious, and impreſs the beholder with their rude magnificence: many caſtles have the ſame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally conſiſt of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curioſities of Germany. There is ſaid to be a cave, near Blackenburg, in Hartz-foreſt, of which no perſon has yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for twenty miles. But the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hamelen, about thirty miles from Hanover, where, at the mouth of a cave, ſtands a monument which commemorates the loſs of 130 children, who were there ſwallowed up in 1284. This fact, however, though it is very ſtrongly atteſted, has been diſputed by ſome critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits; and of many ſtones which ſeem to be petrifactions of fiſhes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vaſt advantages in point of commerce, from its ſituation in the heart of Europe, and being interſected, as it were, with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce, beſides mines and minerals, are hemp, hops, flax, aniſe, cumin, tobacco, ſaffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to thoſe of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries, corn, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn, ribbands, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, toys, turnery-wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-ſkins, wool, timber both for ſhip-building and houſes, cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb-ſhells, iron plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs-wire, porcelain, the fineſt upon earth, earthen-ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hogs' briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalts, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printers' ink, and many other articles.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French proteſtants to ſettle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite ſervice to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, ſilks, ſtuffs of all kinds, fine and coarſe linen and thread, and every thing neceſſary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meiſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, have been long in great repute.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Aſiatic company of Embden, eſtabliſhed by Frederic II. king of Pruſſia, was, excluſive of the Hanſeatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but no ſhips have been ſent out ſince the year 1760. The heavy taxes impoſed on the company have been the cauſe of its total annihilation. In the great cities of Germany, very large and extenſive partnerſhips in trade ſubſiſt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almoſt every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates; but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whoſe power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive; but even that gives him vaſt influence. The ſupreme power in Germany is the diet, which is compoſed of the emperor, or, in his abſence, of his commiſſary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The firſt of theſe is the electoral college; the ſecond is the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns.

The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but, after that, became elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies, of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239, the number of electors was reduced to ſeven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for ſome centuries belonged to the Houſe of Auſtria, as being the moſt powerful of the German princes; but, by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's ſide, to the emperor Joſeph II. the elector of Bavaria, was choſen to that dignity, and died, as it is ſuppoſed, heart-broken, after a ſhort uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he ſigns at his election; and the perſon, who in his life-time is choſen king of the Romans, ſucceeds, without a new election, to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchiſements upon cities and towns; but, as emperor, he can levy no taxes, nor make war or peace, without the conſent of the diet. When that conſent is obtained, every prince muſt contribute his *quota* of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may eſpouſe a different ſide from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German conſtitution; for George II. of England, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furniſh his *quota* againſt the Houſe of Auſtria, and alſo againſt the king of Pruſſia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambaſſadors in all Chriſtian courts.

The nine electors of the empire have each a particular office in the imperial court, and they have the ſole election of the emperor. They are in order,

Firſt, The archbiſhop of Mentz, who is high-chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbiſhop of Triers, who is high-chancellor of France and Arelat, which, ſince the ſeparation of France from the empire, is merely nominal.

Third, The archbiſhop of Cologne, who is the ſame in Italy, a mere title alſo.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand ſewer, or officer who ſerves out the feaſts.

The elector of Saxony, who is great marſhal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Pruſſia), who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great ſteward; and,

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain), who claims the poſt of arch-treaſurer.

It is neceſſary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of thoſe members; and during the vacancy of the imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have juriſdictions, the former over the northern, and the latter over the ſouthern circles.

The eccleſiaſtical princes are as abſolute as the temporal ones in their ſeveral dominions. The chief of theſe, beſides the three eccleſiaſtical electors already mentioned, are the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, the biſhops of Liege, Munſter, Spire, Worms, Wurtzburg, Straſburg, Oſnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Beſides theſe, there are many other eccleſiaſtical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeſſes, whoſe juriſdictions are likewiſe abſolute, and ſome of them very conſiderable; and all of them are choſen by their ſeveral chapters. The chief of the ſecular princes are the landgrave of Heſſe, the dukes of Brunſwic, Wolfenbuttle, Wurtemburg, Mecklenburg, Saxe-Gotha, the marquiſſes of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Naſſau. Anhault, Furſtenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are ſovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewiſe ſovereign ſtates: thoſe which are imperial, or compoſe part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; thoſe which are Hanſe towns, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, have ſtill great privileges and immunities, but they ſubſiſt no longer as a political body.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the aulic council, are the two ſupreme courts for determining the great cauſes of the empire, ariſing between its reſpective members. The imperial council conſiſts of fifty judges or aſſeſſors. The preſident, and four of them, are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chooſes one, and the other princes and ſtates the reſt. This court is at preſent held at Wetzlar, but formerly reſided at Spire: and cauſes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the Houſe of Auſtria. As that family's power increaſed, the juriſdiction of the aulic council was extended upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a certain number of aulic counſellors, of whom ſix are proteſtants, beſides other officers; but the emperor, in fact, is maſter of the court. Theſe courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Paſſau, and the civil law.

Beſides theſe courts of juſtice, each of the nine circles has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. Theſe directors are commonly as follow: for Weſtphalia, the biſhop of Munſter, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbiſhop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine, or biſhop of Worms. For Franconia, the biſhop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Swabia, the duke of Wurtemburg, or biſhop of Conſtance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbiſhop of Saltzburg; and for Auſtria, the archduke of Auſtria, his imperial majeſty.

Upon any great emergency, after the votes of the diet are collected, and ſentence pronounced, the emperor, by his prerogative, commits the

execution of it to a particular prince or princeſs, whoſe troops live at free quarter upon the eſtates of the delinquent, and he is obliged to make good all expenſes.

The conſtitution of the Germanic body is a ſtudy of no ſmall difficulty. However plauſibly invented the ſeveral checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the Houſe of Auſtria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been ſaved by France. The Houſe of Auſtria, indeed, met with a powerful oppoſition from the Houſe of Brandenburg, in conſequence of the activity and abilities of the king of Pruſſia. It may here be proper to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which frequently appears in the German hiſtory,—that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a proviſion made by the emperor Charles VI. for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by other branches of the Houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſionally ſupported by France from political views, though the pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guaranteed by almoſt all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, as being deſcended from the daughters of the emperor Joſeph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewiſe been repeatedly oppoſed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, to be oppreſſed and fleeced at pleaſure; nor are they entirely without redreſs when they ſuffer any grievance; as they may appeal to the general diet, or great council of the empire, for relief. The ſubjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy; for theſe princes, affecting the grandeur and ſplendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities, guards, bands of muſic, tables, dreſs, and furniture, are obliged to ſupport all this vain pomp and parade at the expenſe of their vaſſals and dependants. With reſpect to the burghers and peaſants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges: the latter alſo, in ſome parts, as in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and pay the taxes: whereas, in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. their condition is various, indeed, but univerſally very ſervile.

Revenues.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who, as ſuch, has an annual income of about 5000 or 6000l. ſterling, ariſing from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The Auſtrian revenues are immenſe, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000l. ſterling in Germany and Italy, a ſum that goes far in thoſe countries. Frederic-William I. of Pruſſia, whoſe revenues were not near ſo extenſive as thoſe of his ſon, Frederic II. the uncle of the late king of Pruſſia, though he maintained a large army, was ſo good an œconomiſt, that he left 7,00,000l. ſterling in his coffers; and Sileſia alone yields above half a million ſterling annually. From the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes; which is owing to the ſcarcity of money in that country, and, conſequently, the low price of proviſions and manufactures.

Military strength.] During the two laſt wars, very little regard was paid, in carrying them on, to the ancient German conſtitutions; the

whole management being engroſſed by the head of the Houſe of Auſtria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book, or regiſter, which, among other matters, contains the aſſeſſment of men and money, which every prince and ſtate, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly aſſeſſments, paid to the emperors when they viſited Rome. Thoſe aſſeſſments, however, are ſubject to great mutability. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that, upon a moderate computation, the ſecular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the eccleſiaſtical 74,500, in all 453,500; of thoſe the emperor, as head of the Houſe of Auſtria, is ſuppoſed to furniſh 90,000.

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|---|---|
| The elector of Mentz may maintain | 6,000 |
| The elector of Triers | 6,000 |
| The elector of Cologne | 6,000 |
| The biſhop of Munſter | 8,000 |
| The biſhop of Liege | 8,000 |
| The archbiſhop of Saltzburg | 8,000 |
| The biſhop of Wurtzburg | 2,000 |
| The biſhop of Bamberg | 5,000 |
| The biſhop of Paderborn | 3,000 |
| The biſhop of Oſnaburg | 2,500 |
| The abbot of Fulda | 6,000 |
| The other biſhoprics of the empire | 6,000 |
| The abbeys and provoſtſhips of the empire | 8,000 |
| Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes | 74,500 |
| The emperor for Hungary | 30,000 |
| for Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia | 30,000 |
| for Auſtria, and other dominions | 30,000 |
| The king of Pruſſia | 40,000 |
| The elector of Saxony | 25,000 |
| The elector Palatine | 15,000 |
| The duke of Wurtemburg | 15,000 |
| The landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel | 15,000 |
| The prince of Baden | 10,000 |
| The elector of Hanover | 30,000 |
| The duke of Holſtein | 12,000 |
| The duke of Mecklenburg | 15,000 |
| The prince of Anhault | 6,000 |
| The prince of Lauenburg | 6,000 |
| The elector of Bavaria | 30,000 |
| The dukes of Saxony | 10,000 |
| The prince of Naſſau | 10,000 |
| The other princes and imperial towns | 50,000 |
| The ſecular princes | 379,000 |
| The eccleſiaſtical princes | 74,000 |
| | 453,500 |

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears that the emperor and empire form the moſt powerful government in Europe; and if the whole force was united, and properly directed, Germany would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours.

But the different intereſts purſued by the ſeveral princes of Germany render the power of the emperor of little conſequence, except with regard to his own forces, which are indeed very formidable. The imperial army was computed, in 1775, to amount to two hundred thouſand; and, in the preſent war, the emperor has brought about the ſame number into the field.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The emperor of Germany pretends to be ſucceſſor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occaſions among the powers of Europe. Auſtria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that Houſe, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is veſted as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. On the breaſt of the eagle is an eſcutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jeruſalem, Arragon, Anjou, Guelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as uſeleſs as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of inſtituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admiſſible unleſs confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as deſcended from the Houſe of Burgundy. The empreſs dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empreſs-queen inſtituted the order of St. Thereſa.

The "*Order of the Golden Fleece*" was inſtituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January, 1429, by Philip, duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is ſuppoſed that he choſe the badge, it being the chief of the ſtaple manufactures of his country. It at firſt conſiſted of thirty knights, including the ſovereign, who were of the firſt families in the Low Countries; and it ſtill continues to be claſſed with the moſt illuſtrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At preſent there are two branches of it; of the one, the emperor is ſovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all muſt prove their noble deſcent from the twelfth century. The motto of the order is "*Pretium non vile laborum.*" The "*Teutonic Order*" owed its origin to ſome religious Germans in Jeruſalem during the cruſades, who aſſumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hoſpital of our Lady of the Germans at Jeruſalem." Conrade, duke of Swabia, invited them into Pruſſia, about the year 1230; ſoon after, they conquered Pruſſia for themſelves, and became one of the moſt powerful orders in Europe. By their internal quarrels, they afterwards loſt their power and poſſeſſions: and Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, grand-maſter of the order, on his abjuring popery, abdicated the grand-maſterſhip, ſubdued Pruſſia, and expelled all the papiſts who would not follow his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the proteſtant branch, which has a houſe at Utrecht, has been noticed in our account of orders in the Netherlands:—that for papiſts has a houſe at Mergentheim, in Germany, and the members muſt take the oath of celibacy. The enſign worn by this branch is worn round the neck, pendent to a gold chain.

The time of the inſtitution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is ſovereign of it, and it is generally beſtowed on military officers. In the year 1690, John-George, elector of

Saxony, and Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, on terminating their diſputes, eſtabliſhed the "*Order of Sincerity*," as a confirmation and ſecurity hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold; on one ſide are the names of the two princes, with this device, "*Amitié ſincère*;" on the other ſide are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two ſwords, with two palm-branches croſſed, with this motto, "*Unis pour jamais.*"

John-George, duke of Saxe Weiſſenfels, inſtituted the "*Order of the Noble Paſſion*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the ſovereign. Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed ſoldiers in the ſervice of the ſovereign. In the year 1709, Louiſa-Elizabeth, widow of Philip, duke of Saxe Merſburg, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," firſt inſtituted in 1652, by her father, the duke of Wurtemburg. A princeſs of that houſe alone can be ſovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amuſements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, ſurmounted with a croſs pattée, black; above the croſs pattée, another croſs compoſed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black ribband edged with white, and on the ribband theſe words, "*Memento mori*," worn at the breaſt.

The great order of Wurtemburg is that "*of the Chaſe*," inſtituted in the year 1702, by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. On the left ſide of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered, of the ſame figure as the badge, in the middle of a green circle, with the motto "*Amicitiæ Virtutisque Fœdus.*" The feſtival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of ſportſmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," firſt inſtituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. All the knights have either military employments or penſions. The archbiſhop of Saltzburg, in 1701, inſtituted the "*Order of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and patron of the ſee he held, and as the apoſtle of his country. As the archbiſhop is the richeſt and moſt powerful prince of Bavaria, next to the elector, his order is in good eſteem. In the year 1729, Albert, elector of Bavaria, inſtituted the "*Order of St. George, the Defender of the Immaculate Conception*," the knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*," inſtituted by the preſent landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, is equally a military and civil order, but moſtly conferred on general officers. The preſent landgrave has alſo inſtituted the military "*Order of Merit*," the badge of which is a gold croſs, of eight points, enamelled white, and in the centre this motto, "*Pro Virtute et Fidelitate:*" it is worn at the coat button-hole, pendent to a blue ribband edged with ſilver.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well deſcribed by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by their love of liberty and arms. They oppoſed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and ſtill continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occaſionally connected by a military union for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberties of them all. At length, the Roman power, ſupported by art and policy, prevailed

over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was ſhattered by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480, and a conſiderable part of it long remained in ſubjection to earls and marquiſſes of that nation. In this ſituation Germany continued, notwithſtanding the efforts of particular chieftains or princes to reduce the reſt into ſubjection, until the beginning of the ninth century; then it was that Charlemagne, one of thoſe eccentric and ſuperior geniuſes who ſometimes ſtart up in a barbarous age, firſt extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The poſterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III. in the year 911, at which time the different princes, aſſuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been conſidered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. Of theſe, the moſt conſiderable, until the Auſtrian line acquired the imperial power, were the Houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of theſe emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the conteſts between them and the popes. From theſe, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, aroſe the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to diſquiet the empire for ſeveral ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks, and ſometimes the German princes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the ſucceſſion. But what more deſerves the attention of a judicious reader than all thoſe noiſy but unintereſting diſputes, is the progreſs of government in Germany, which was in ſome meaſure oppoſite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire raiſed by Charlemagne fell aſunder, all the different independent princes aſſumed the right of election; and thoſe now diſtinguiſhed by the name of electors had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a ſucceſſor to the imperial throne; they were only the officers of the king's houſehold, his ſecretary, his ſteward, chaplain, marſhal, or maſter of his horſe, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's perſon, and, like all other princes, had independent territories belonging to them, they increaſed their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of the Houſe of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the ſole right of electing the emperor*. Thus, while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial or independent barons, was diminiſhed by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain—in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raiſed upon the ruins of the emperor's ſupremacy, and of the people's juriſdiction. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy, that he and his ſucceſſors ſhould have the power of nominating the pope, and of granting inveſtitures to biſhops. Henry V. a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122, ſurrendered up the right of inveſtiture and other powers, to the diſgrace of the imperial dignity; but pope Benedict XII. refuſing abſolution to Louis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared in the diet of the empire, that the majority of

* Wiquefort ſays, that nothing was ſettled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV. who was choſen emperor in 1347, and made that famous conſtitution for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*.

ſuffrages of the electoral college ſhould confer the empire without the conſent of the pope, and that he had no ſuperiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II. archduke of Auſtria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his ſucceſſors, Maximilian, married the heireſs of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the Houſe of Auſtria. Charles V. grandſon of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in ſeveral parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually diſturbed by his wars with the German princes, and the French king, Francis I. Though ſucceſsful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune toward the concluſion of it began to forſake him; which, with other reaſons, occaſioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who, in 1558, ſucceeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the addreſs to procure his ſon Maximilian to be declared king of the Romans, in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his laſt will he ordered, that if either his own male iſſue, or that of his brother Charles, ſhould fail, his Auſtrian eſtates ſhould revert to his ſecond daughter Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her iſſue.

This deſtination is noticed as it gave riſe to the late oppoſition made by the Houſe of Bavaria to the pragmatic ſanction in favour of the late empreſs-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was diſturbed with internal commotions, and an invaſion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Auſtria in his life-time. To him ſucceeded in the empire, Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went by the names of Lutherans and Calviniſts, were ſo much divided among themſelves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias at laſt reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commiſſaries out of a window, at Prague. This gave riſe to a ruinous war, which laſted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded by his couſin, Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic, the elector palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to his Britannic majeſty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he loſt it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague: and he was alſo deprived of his own electorate, the beſt part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The proteſtant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmneſs and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach, Chriſtian duke of Brunſwic, and count Mansfield; the laſt was one of the beſt generals of the age. Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, declared

for them; and Richelieu, the French miniſter, did not wiſh to ſee the Houſe of Auſtria aggrandiſed. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Chriſtian having put himſelf at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialiſt of great reputation in war. Ferdinand ſo groſsly abuſed the advantages obtained over the proteſtants, that they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, of which the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. His victories and progreſs, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632, have already been related. But the proteſtant cauſe did not die with him. He had brought up a ſet of heroes, ſuch as the duke of Saxe Wiemar, Torſtenſon, Banier, and others, who ſhook the Auſtrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munſter, in the year 1648; which forms the baſis of the preſent political ſyſtem of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was ſucceeded by the emperor Leopold, a ſevere, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one ſide, and the Turks on the other; and was a loſer in his war with both. France took from him Alſace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the ſiege been raiſed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms, about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the firſt checks they received in Hungary; and by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Tranſylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withſtood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy againſt the French power, the conſequences of which have been already deſcribed. The Hungarians, ſecretly encouraged by the French, and exaſperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were ſtill in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died, in 1705.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon, Joſeph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very ſplendid victories, had not all the ſucceſs he expected or deſerved. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the Germanic liberties; and it was evident, by his conduct, that he expected England ſhould take the principal part in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The Engliſh were diſguſted at his ſlowneſs and ſelfiſhneſs; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male iſſue, was ſucceeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place, in 1713, Charles at firſt made a ſhow as if he would continue the war; but found himſelf unable, now that he was forſaken by the Engliſh. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France, at Baden, in 1714, that he might oppoſe the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another, of equal importance, from the ſame general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialiſts; and the following year the peace of Paſſarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles was

continually employed in making arrangements for increaſing and preſerving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the Houſe of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decifive weight in Europe, by the connections of George I. and II. with the empire. Charles was ſenſible of this, and carried matters with ſo high a hand, that, about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach enſued between him and George I. and ſo unſteady was the ſyſtem of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones, contrary to their intereſt. Without entering into particulars, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that the ſafety of Hanover, and its aggrandiſement, was the main object of the Britiſh court; as that of the emperor was the eſtabliſhment of the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empreſs-queen, he having no male iſſue. Mutual conceſſions upon thoſe great points reſtored a good underſtanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the proſpect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquiſhed the claims he had upon the Auſtrian ſucceſſion.

The emperor, after this, had very ill ſucceſs in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himſelf for the great ſacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the Houſe of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to ſupply his place. The ſyſtem of France, under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and ſhe obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reaſon to expect. Charles, to pacify the German and other European powers, had, before his death, given his eldeſt daughter, the late empreſs-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no acceſſion of power to the Auſtrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no ſooner in the grave, than all he had ſo long laboured for muſt have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmneſs of George II. The pragmatic ſanction was attacked on all ſides. The young king of Pruſſia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered Sileſia, which he ſaid had been wrongfully diſmembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria ſet up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic ſanction; and in this they were joined by France; though all thoſe powers had ſolemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a conſiderable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January, 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague: and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Pruſſia, was forced to cede to that prince the moſt valuable part of the duchy of Sileſia, by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and ſufferings, and the noble fortitude with which ſhe bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, under whoſe protection ſhe threw herſelf and her infant ſon; and though they had always been remarkable for their diſaffection to the Houſe of Auſtria, they declared unanimouſly in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an Engliſh and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time diſtreſſed on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as had been his anceſtor, in queen Anne's reign, for ſiding with France, and would have given the queen of Hungary almoſt her own terms; but ſhe haughtily and impoliticly rejected all accommodation, though adviſed to it by his Britannic majeſty, her beſt, and indeed

only friend. This obſtinacy gave a colour for the king of Pruſſia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of ſupporting the imperial dignity; but though he took Prague, and ſubdued the greateſt part of the kingdom, he was not ſupported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired to Sileſia. This event confirmed the obſtinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that ſhe might recover Sileſia. Soon after, his imperial majeſty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand-duke of Tuſcany, conſort to her Hungarian majeſty, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, was choſen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad ſucceſs of the allies againſt the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loſs of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt his Pruſſian majeſty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven the Pruſſians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empreſs-queen was ſuch, that his Britannic majeſty thought proper to guarantee to him the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Pruſſian majeſty pretended that he had diſcovered a ſecret convention which had been entered into between the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to ſtrip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themſelves. Upon this he ſuddenly attacked the king of Poland, drove him out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden, which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine, now become great-duke of Tuſcany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the diſadvantage, but to the diſcredit of the Auſtrians and Dutch, till it was finiſhed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April, 1748. By that treaty, Sileſia was once more guaranteed to the king of Pruſſia. It was not long before that monarch's jealouſies were renewed and verified; and the empreſs of Ruſſia's views falling in with thoſe of the empreſs-queen and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally ſupported by France in their new ſchemes, a freſh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The king of Pruſſia declared againſt the admiſſion of the Ruſſians into Germany, and his Britannic majeſty againſt that of the French. Upon thoſe two principles, all former differences between theſe monarchs were forgotten, and the Britiſh parliament agreed to pay an annual ſubſidy of 670,000l. to his Pruſſian majeſty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Pruſſian majeſty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown, at the battle of Lowoſitz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almoſt impregnably fortified at Pirna; and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Pruſſian majeſty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Ruſſians did by another, into Germany. The conduct of his Pruſſian majeſty on this occaſion is ſcarcely to be paralleled in hiſtory. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Auſtrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marſhal Schwerin was on the ſide of the Pruſſians. He then beſieged Prague, and plied it with a moſt tremendous artillery; but, juſt as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Auſtrian general Daun, obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and to fall back upon Eiſenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialiſts,

under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops; but they were beaten at the battle of Liſſa, and the Pruſſians took Breſlau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Ruſſians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aſpect of the war; and the cautious, yet enterpriſing genius of count Daun, laid his Pruſſian majeſty under infinite difficulties, notwithſtanding all his amazing victories. At firſt he defeated the Ruſſians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army, in the night-time, by count Daun at Hochkirchen, had nearly proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable preſence of mind. He was obliged, however, to ſacrifice Saxony, for the ſafety of Sileſia; and it has been obſerved, that few periods of hiſtory afford ſuch room for reflection as this campaign did; ſix ſieges were raiſed almoſt at the ſame time; that of Colberg by the Ruſſians; that of Leipſic, by the duke of Deux Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dreſden, by count Daun; and thoſe of Neiſs, Coſel, and Torgau, alſo by the Auſtrians.

Many important events which paſſed at the ſame time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the Engliſh, or their allies, muſt be omitted on account of the brevity neceſſary to be obſerved in this compendium. The operations on both ſides are of little importance to hiſtory, becauſe nothing was done that was deciſive, though the war was extremely burdenſome and bloody to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empreſs-queen to his Britannic majeſty and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Ruſſians had taken poſſeſſion of the kingdom of Pruſſia, and laid ſiege to Colberg, the only port of his Pruſſian majeſty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Ruſſians; but he ſoon found them by far the moſt formidable enemies he had. They advanced under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Sileſia. In this diſtreſs he acted with a courage and reſolution that bordered upon deſpair; but was, at laſt, totally defeated by the Ruſſians, with the loſs of 20,000 of his beſt men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats ſeemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were ſhut up. He had loſt, ſince the firſt of October, 1756, the brave marſhal Keith, and forty brave generals, beſides thoſe who were wounded and made priſoners. At Landſchut, the imperial general Laudohn defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Auſtrians an eaſy paſſage into Sileſia. None but his Pruſſian majeſty would have thought of continuing the war under ſuch repeated loſſes; but every defeat he received ſeemed to give him freſh ſpirits. It is not, perhaps, very eaſy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealouſy which the imperial generals entertained of their Ruſſian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialiſts in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the beſt fought action the king of Pruſſia had ever been engaged in; but it coſt him 10,000 of his beſt troops, and was attended with no great conſequences in his favour. New re-inforcements which arrived every day from Ruſſia, the taking of Colberg by the Ruſſians, and of Schweidnitz by the Auſtrians, ſeemed almoſt to have completed his ruin, when his moſt formidable enemy, the empreſs of Ruſſia, died, January 5, 1762. George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of thoſe illuſtrious perſonages were followed by great conſequences. The Britiſh miniſtry of George III. were ſolicitous to put an

end to the war, and the new emperor of Ruſſia recalled his armies. His Pruſſian majeſty was, notwithſtanding, ſo very much reduced by his loſſes, that the empreſs-queen, probably, would have completed his deſtruction, had it not been for the prudent reluctance of the other German princes to annihilate the Houſe of Brandenburg. At firſt the empreſs-queen rejected all terms propoſed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The viſible unwillingneſs of her generals to execute her orders, and the ſucceſſes obtained by his Pruſſian majeſty, at laſt prevailed upon her to agree to an armiſtice, which was ſoon followed by the treaty of Hubertſburg, February 15, 1763, which again ſecured to his Pruſſian majeſty the poſſeſſion of Sileſia.

Upon the death of the emperor, her huſband, in 1765, her ſon Joſeph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded him in the empire. Soon after his acceſſion, he diſcovered great activity and ambition. He joined in the diſmemberment of Poland, with Ruſſia and Pruſſia. He paid a viſit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy; and had a perſonal interview with his Pruſſian majeſty, though this did not prevent hoſtilities from being commenced between Auſtria and Pruſſia, on account of the ſucceſſion to the electorate of Bavaria. The Auſtrian claims on this occaſion were very unjuſt; but, in the ſupport of them, while the conteſt continued, the emperor diſplayed great military ſkill. Though vaſt armies were brought into the field on both ſides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. The emperor afterwards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the Scheldt, but in this he likewiſe failed. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, granted a moſt liberal religious toleration, and ſuppreſſed moſt of the religious orders of both ſexes, as being utterly uſeleſs, and even pernicious to ſociety; and in 1783, by an edict, aboliſhed the remains of ſervitude and villanage, and fixed alſo the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a penſion in lieu. He alſo aboliſhed the uſe of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peaſants and common people laboured. He was a prince that mixed with his ſubjects with an eaſe and affability that are very uncommon in perſons of his rank. He loved the converſation of ingenious men, and appeared ſolicitous to cultivate knowledge.

Peter-Leopold, grand-duke of Tuſcany, ſucceeded his brother Joſeph II. and engaged the public praiſe by repeated inſtances of moderation and ſolid principles. His former management of his Italian ſovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, ſhowed that he aſpired to truer reputation than can be acquired by the mere ſplendors of royalty. One of the biſhops of Hungary having refuſed his licence to a catholic ſubject to marry a proteſtant woman, the emperor diſmiſſed him from his ſee; but pardoned him afterwards upon conceſſion, and deſired the biſhop to exhort his brethren to comply with the imperial ordonnances, elſe no favour ſhould be ſhown.

The French revolution now attracted the attention of the powers of Europe. A conference was held at Pilnitz, between the emperor, the king of Pruſſia, and the elector of Saxony, at which the plan of attacking France was propoſed and diſcuſſed. Leopold for ſome time was very irreſolute, but at laſt ſeemed to be reſolved on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever, on the firſt of March, 1792, after an illneſs of four days.

His ſon Francis was raiſed to the imperial throne in the middle of July following. He embraced the politics of his predeceſſor, and em-

barked with zeal in the political cruſade againſt France. The diſaſtrous conſequences of this war to the Houſe of Auſtria, the diſgraceful treaty by which it was for a ſhort time intermitted, its re-commencement, and the recent ſucceſſes of the imperial arms, have been related in our account of the affairs of France.

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Francis-Joſeph Charles, emperor of Germany, and grand-duke of Tuſcany. He was born Feb. 3, 1768; married, Jan. 6, 1788, Elizabeth, princeſs of Wurtemburg, who died 1790. He married 2dly, Sept. 1790, Maria Thereſa, of Naples, his couſin.

On the death of his father Peter-Leopold, late emperor, March 1ſt, 1792, he ſucceeded to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia; and July 14, 1792, was elected emperor of Germany.

He had no iſſue by his firſt marriage. By the latter he has a daughter, Maria-Thereſa, born Dec. 12, 1791.

The late emperor Peter-Leopold had 15 children, the eldeſt of whom is the preſent emperor; the others are,

Ferdinand-Joſeph, born May 5, 1769; married, Sept. 17, 1790, Maria-Amelia of Naples.

Charles-Lewis, born Sept. 3, 1771.

Alexander-Leopold-Joſeph, born Aug. 1, 1772.

Maximilian, born Dec. 23, 1774; died May 9, 1778.

Joſeph-Antony, born May 9, 1776.

Antony-Victor, born Aug. 31, 1779.

A ſon, born Jan. 20, 1782.

Regnier-Jerom, born Sept. 30, 1783.

Thereſa-Joſepha-Charlotta-Jane, born Jan. 14, 1767.

Maria, born Jan. 14, 1767; married, Oct. 18, 1787, Antony, brother to the elector of Saxony,

Mary-Ann-Ferdinanda-Joſepha, born April 21, 1770.

Mary-Clementina-Joſepha, born April 24, 1777; married, Sept. 1790, Francis-Januarius, prince-royal of Naples.

Maria Joſepha-Thereſa, born Oct. 15, 1780.

A princeſs, born Oct. 22, 1784.

Maria-Antionetta, born and died in 1786.

The late emperor has, living, two ſiſters, and one brother *unmarried.*

Thoſe *married* are,

Maria-Chriſtiana-Joſepha, born May 13, 1742; married, April 8, 1766, to prince Albert of Saxony.

Maria-Amelia-Joſepha, born Feb. 26, 1746; married to the reigning duke of Parma, June 27, 1769.

Ferdinand-Charles-Antonine, born June 1, 1754; married to the princeſs Maria-Beatrice of Modena, and has iſſue.

Mary-Caroline-Louiſa, born Aug. 13, 1752; married, April 7, 1768, to the king of the Two Sicilies.

ELECTORS.] Three eccleſiaſtical electors, called Electoral Highneſſes; and five ſecular ones, Moſt Serene Electoral Highneſſes.

ECCLESIASTICAL ELECTORS.] 1. Frederic-Charles-Joſeph, baron of Erthal, archbiſhop and elector of Mentz, born July 8, 1774.

2. Prince Clement of Saxony (ſon of Auguſtus III. king of Poland), born Sept. 28, 1739; archbiſhop and elector of Treves, Feb. 10, 1768; alſo biſhop of Treiſingen and Augſburg, by diſpenſation from the pope.

3. Maximilian-Francis, brother to the late emperor, grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, archbiſhop and elector of Cologn, and biſhop of Munſter, born Dec. 8, 1756.

SECULAR ELECTORS.] 1. Francis-Joſeph-Charles, emperor of Germany, king of Hungary, Bohemia, &c. born Feb. 3, 1768.

2. Frederic-Auguſtus IV. elector and duke of Saxony, born Dec. 23, 1750; married, Jan. 17, 1769, to the princeſs Amelia-Auguſta of Deux Ponts.

3. Charles-Frederic, elector and marquis of Brandenburg.

4. The prince of Deux Ponts, elector Palatine, &c.

5. George III. king of Great Britain, elector of Hanover, &c.

SAXE-GOTHA.] Erneſt Lewis, duke of, nephew to the late princeſs dowager of Wales, born Jan. 30, 1745; married, May 21, 1769, to Maria-Charlotte of Saxe-Meningen, by whom he has,

1. Erneſt, born Feb. 27, 1770.

2. Emilius-Leopold, born Nov. 24, 1772.

3. His brother Auguſtus, born Aug. 14, 1747.

MECKLENBURG.] The houſe of Mecklenburg is divided into two branches, viz.

I. Mecklenburg Schwerin.—Frederic, reigning duke, born Nov. 9, 1717; married, in 1746, Louiſa-Frederica, daughter of Frederic-Louis, hereditary prince of Wurtemburg Stutgard, born Feb. 3, 1722; they have no iſſue.—Iſſue of the late prince Louis, by the princeſs Charlotte-Sophia, of Saxe-Coburg-Staelfield.

Frederic-Francis, born Dec. 10, 1757.

Princeſs Ulrica-Sophia, ſiſter to the reigning duke, born July 1, 1723, governeſs of the convent of Ruhne.

II. Mecklenburg Strelitz.—Adolphus-Frederic, reigning duke (knight of the garter), born May 5, 1738.—His brothers and ſiſters are,

1. Charles-Louis-Frederic, a lieut. general in the Hanoverian ſervice, born Oct. 10, 1741; married, Sept. 18, 1768, to Frederica-Charlotte-Louiſa, of Heſſe Darmſtadt, by whom he had iſſue,

1. Carolina-Georgina Louiſa-Frederica, born Nov. 17, 1769.

2. Thereſa-Matilda-Amelia, born April 5, 1778.

2. Erneſt-Gotlob-Albert, major-general in the Hanoverian ſervice, and governor of Zell, born Aug. 7, 1742.

4. Chriſtiana-Sophia-Albertina, born Dec. 6, 1735.

5. Charlotte, queen conſort of Great-Britain, born May 19, 1744; married Sept. 8, 1761; crowned Sept. 22, 1761.

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## THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

Lat. 52° 40′—to 55° 50′ N.
Long. 10° 00′—to 23° 23′ E.

Containing 22,144 ſquare miles, with 67 inhabitants in each.—The whole dominions 60,000 ſquare miles, with 104 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT. THIS country is bounded to the North by part of Samogitia; to the South, by Poland Proper, and Maſovia; to the Eaſt, by part of Lithuania; and to the Weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic. Its greateſt length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS. The name of Pruſſia is probably derived from the Boruſſi, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horſes, ſheep, deer and game, wild bears, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſh; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coaſts towards the Baltic. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, beſides quantities of pot-aſhes. The rivers here ſometimes do damage by inundations; and the principal are, the Viſtula, The Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Paſſarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS. As Pruſſia, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, has become a moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe, it may be proper to deviate from the uſual plan, and bring before the reader's eye the whole of his Pruſſian majeſty's teritories, which lie ſcattered in other diviſions of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which will be found in the following table:

| Proteſtants. COUNTRIES' NAMES. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | CHIEF CITIES. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Poland | Ducal Pruſſia | 9050 | 160 | 112 | KÖNINGSBERG | 54-43 N. Lat. 21-35 E. Lon. |
| | Royal Pruſſia | 6400 | 118 | 104 | Elbing | |
| Up. Saxony | Brandenburg | 10,910 | 215 | 110 | Berlin | |
| | Pomerania | 4820 | 150 | 65 | Camin | |
| | Swed. Pomerania | 2991 | 90 | 48 | Stetin | |
| Lo. Saxony | Magdeburg | 1535 | 68 | 50 | Magdeburg | |
| | Halbertſtadt | 450 | 42 | 17 | Halberſtadt | |
| Bohemia | Glatz | 550 | 38 | 23 | Glatz | |
| | Sileſia | 10,000 | 196 | 92 | Breſlaw | |
| Weſtphalia | Minden | 595 | 42 | 26 | Minden | |
| | Ravenſburg | 525 | 38 | 34 | Ravenſburg | |
| | Lingen | 120 | 15 | 11 | Lingen | |
| | Cleves | 630 | 43 | 21 | Cleves | |
| | Meurs | 35 | 10 | 6 | Meurs | |
| | Mark | 980 | 52 | 43 | Ham | |
| | Eaſt Frieſland | 690 | 46 | 32 | Embden | |
| | Lippe | 25 | 8 | 4 | Lipſtadt | |
| | Gulich | 528 | 44 | 24 | Gulich | |
| | Tecklenburg | 36 | 12 | 6 | Tecklenburg | |
| Netherlands | Guelder | 360 | 54 | 23 | Guelders | |
| Switzerland | Neufchatel | 320 | 32 | 20 | Neufchatel. | |
| | Total | 52,450 | | | | |

Beſides a great part of Sileſia, which Frederic II. under various pretences, wreſted from Auſtria; availing himſelf alſo of the internal troubles in Poland, he, by virtue of no other right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, ſeized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Viſtula and the Neiſter, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, cloſe to the walls of Dantzic. Theſe acquiſitions may be traced in the map. To theſe muſt alſo be added the additional part of Poland acquired by the final partition of that country.

We ſhall here confine ourſelves to Pruſſia as a kingdom, becauſe his Pruſſian majeſty's other dominions fall under the deſcription of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom alone were, by Dr. Buſching, computed to amount to 635,998 perſons capable of bearing arms. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburgers. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages, 11 towns, 86 ſeats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village ſchools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from thoſe of the other inhabitants of Germany. The ſame may be ſaid of their cuſtoms and diverſions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES.] The religion of Pruſſia is very tolerant. The eſtabliſhed religions are thoſe of the Lutherans and Calviniſts, but chiefly the former; but papiſts, antipædobaptiſts, and almoſt all other ſects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in ſchools. An univerſity was founded at Königſberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Pruſſia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 pariſhes, and the latter 105.

Königſberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, ſeated on the river Pregel, over which it has ſeven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Buſching, this city is ſeven miles in circumference, and contains 3800 houſes, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation is perhaps a little exaggerated, becauſe it ſuppoſes, at an average, near ſixteen perſons in every houſe. Königſberg has ever made a conſiderable figure in commerce and ſhipping, its river being navigable for ſhips; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, beſides 298 coaſters; and 373 floats of timber were, in the courſe of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, beſides its college or univerſity, which contains 38 profeſſors, has magnificent palaces, a town-houſe, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embelliſhments. It has a good harbour and a citadel, which is called Fredericsburg, and is a regular ſquare.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] See Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Pruſſian manufactures are not inconſiderable; they conſiſt of glaſs, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and braſs mills; manufactures of cloth, camlet, linen, ſilk ſtockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval ſtores, amber, linſeed, and hempſeed, oatmeal, fiſh, mead, tallow, and caviar: and it is ſaid that 500 ſhips are loaded every year with thoſe commodities chiefly from Königſberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Pruſſian majeſty is abſolute through all his dominions, and he avails himſelf to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of ſtate; viz. 1. The great maſter; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The ſtates conſiſt, 1. Of counſellors of ſtate; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Beſides theſe inſtitutions, Frederic II. erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Pruſſian majeſty, by means of the happy ſituation of his country, its inland navigation, and judicious political regulations,

derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; but the exact ſum is not known; though we may conclude it is very conſiderable from the immenſe charges of the ſeven years' war. The revenue which the king draws from Sileſia amounts annually to 5,854,632 rix-dollars; and after deducting the expenſes of the military eſtabliſhment, and all others, there is a net revenue of 1,554,632 rix-dollars. His revenues now, ſince the acceſſion of Poliſh or Royal Pruſſia, muſt be greatly increaſed: excluſive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local ſituation was of vaſt importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Pruſſia. By this acquiſition, his dominions are compact, and his troops may march from Berlin to Königſberg without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Pruſſian army, even in time of peace, conſiſts of about 180,000 of the beſt diſciplined troops in the world; and, during the ſeven years' war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandiſe the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconſiſtent with the intereſts of the people. The army is chiefly compoſed of provincial regiments, the whole Pruſſian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the ſize and populouſneſs of the diviſions, have been originally raiſed, and from it the recruits continue to be taken: and each particular regiment is always quartered, in time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of ſons a peaſant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the ſervice except one, who is left to aſſiſt in the management of the farm. The reſt wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are deſtined to be ſoldiers, and obliged to enter into the ſervice whenever they are called upon. But the maintaining ſo large an army, in a country naturally ſo little equal to it, has occaſioned ſuch a drain from population, and ſuch a withdrawing of ſtrength from the labours of the earth, that the late king endeavoured in ſome degree to ſave his own peaſantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. Theſe foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Pruſſians have every year ſome months of furlough, during which they return to the houſes of their fathers or brothers, and work at the buſineſs of the farm, or in any other way they pleaſe.

ARMS AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Pruſſia are, argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemicircular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburg. To theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood, the "*Order of Concord*," inſtituted by Chriſtian Erneſt, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to diſtinguiſh the part he had acted in reſtoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Pruſſia, inſtituted, in 1685, the "*Order of Generoſity*." The knights wear a croſs of eight points, enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Généroſité*," pendent to a blue ribband. The ſame prince inſtituted the "*Order of the Black Eagle*," on the day of his coronation

at Königſberg, in the year 1700: the ſovereign is always grand-maſter; and the number of knights, excluſive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who muſt alſo be admitted into the "*Order of Generoſity*," previous to their receiving this, unleſs they be ſovereign princes. The "*Order of Merit*" was inſtituted by the late king, in the year 1740, to reward the merit of perſons either in arms or arts, without diſtinction of birth, religion, or country; the king is ſovereign, and the number of knights unlimited.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Pruſſia, like that of other kingdoms, is loſt in the clouds of fiction and romance. The early inhabitants, a brave and warlike people, deſcended from the Sclavonians, refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Chriſtianity, endeavoured to ſubject them to ſlavery. They made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleſlaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their converſion by the edge of the ſword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long ſeries of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the moſt incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vaſt waſte of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Caſimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cauſe of the oppreſſed people; by which it was agreed, that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part, acknowledging themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This gave riſe to freſh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unſucceſsfully, to throw off their vaſſalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the laſt grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, laid aſide the habit of his order, embraced Lutheraniſm, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia (formerly called, for that reaſon, Ducal Pruſſia), but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to deſcend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male iſſue, to his brother, and his male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic-William of Brandenburg, deſervedly called the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed by John Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage; and he and his deſcendants were declared independent and ſovereign lords of this part of Pruſſia.

As the proteſtant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that perſuaſion, the proteſtant intereſt favoured them ſo much, that Frederic, the ſon of Frederic-William the Great, was raiſed to the dignity of king of Pruſſia, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates, proclaimed January 18, 1701, and ſoon after acknowledged as ſuch by all the powers of Chriſtendom. His grandſon, Frederic II. in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this firſt king's talents for government, but expatiates on thoſe of his own father, Frederic-William, who ſucceeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of ſtrong natural abilities, and conſiderably increaſed the revenues of his country, but too often at the expenſe of humanity. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is ſaid to have left ſeven millions ſterling in his treaſury, which enabled his ſon, by his wonderful victories,

and the more wonderful reſources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the age. He improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a poet, philoſopher, and legiſlator. Some of the principal tranſactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the hiſtory of Germany. In the year 1783, he publiſhed a reſcript, ſignifying his pleaſure that no kneeling in future ſhould be practiſed in honour of his perſon, aſſigning for his reaſon, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity; and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him, in 1782, in draining marſhes, eſtabliſhing factories, ſettling colonies, relieving diſtreſs, and in other purpoſes of philanthropy and policy.

The late king of Pruſſia, who ſucceeded his uncle, Auguſt 17, 1786, made many ſalutary regulations for his ſubjects, and eſtabliſhed a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions.

The exertions of Pruſſia againſt France, till the treaty of peace concluded between thoſe two powers, on the 5th of April, 1795, have been already related in our account of France.

The conduct of Pruſſia with regard to Poland is difficult to explain; and it would apparently have been more for the intereſt of the former to have erected the latter as a formidable independent barrier againſt Ruſſia and Auſtria, than to have expoſed itſelf to the enormous and increaſed power of Ruſſia.

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Frederic-William II.* died at Berlin, of a dropſy, November 16, 1797, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Frederic-William III.

Frederic-William II. king of Pruſſia, and elector of Brandenburg, born September 25, 1744; married, July 14, 1765, to the princeſs Elizabeth-Chriſtiana-Ulrica, of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle. 2dly, On July 14, 1769, to Frederica-Louiſa, of Heſſe Darmſtadt.

Iſſue by the firſt marriage:

Frederica-Charlotta-Ulrica-Catharine, born May 7, 1767; married, September 29, 1791, to the duke of York, the ſecond ſon of his Britannic majeſty.

Iſſue by the latter marriage:

1. Frederic-William, the preſent king, born Auguſt 3, 1770.
2. Frederic-Louis-Charles, born Auguſt 3, 1773.
3. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born November 18, 1774; married, October 1, 1791, to the hereditary prince of Orange.
4. Frederic-Chriſtian-Auguſtus, born May 1, 1780.
5. Another prince, born December 20, 1781.
6. Another prince, born July, 1783.

Queen dowager, Elizabeth-Chriſtina, of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, born November 8, 1715.

Brother and ſiſter to the late king:

1. Frederic-Charles-Henry, born December 30, 1747.
2. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751, and married in 1767, to the preſent prince of Orange.

* In enumerating the kings of Pruſſia, we have thought it moſt proper to follow the method uſed in Pruſſia, and throughout Germany, where the *Frederics* are diſtinguiſhed from the *Frederic-Williams*: thus the uncle of the late king, and the late king, frequently here ſtyled Frederic III. and Frederic IV. are always called, on the continent, Frederic II. and Frederic-William II. the father of the former not being ſtyled Frederic II. but Frederic-William I.

# THE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 478 | between | 48 and 52 North latitude. |
| Breadth 322 | | 12 and 19 East longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg on the North; by Poland and Hungary on the East; by Auſtria and Bavaria on the South; and by the Palatinate of Bavaria on the Weſt: formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Sileſia; and 3. Moravia.

| Diviſions. | Chief Towns. | Miles. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Bohemia Proper, W. moſtly ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria | Prague, E. long. 14-20. N. lat. 50.<br>Königſgratz, E.<br>Glatz, E. ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.<br>Egra, W. | Length 162<br>Breadth 142 | 12,060 |
| 2. Sileſia, Eaſt, moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia | Breſlau, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15<br>Glogau, N.<br>Croſſen, N.<br>Jagendorf, S.<br>Troppau, S. ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.<br>Teſchen, S. ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria. | Length 196<br>Breadth 92 | 10,250 |
| 3. Moravia, S. entirely ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria | Olmutz, E. long. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40.<br>Brunn, middle.<br>Egra, S. W. | Length 120<br>Breadth 88 | 5,424 |

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia Proper is not thought ſo wholeſome as that of the reſt of Germany, though its ſoil and produce are pretty much the ſame.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, contains none of note or diſtinction: its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldau, and Eger.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſulphur, and ſaltpetre: its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glaſs.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] About 150 years ago, Bohemia was computed to contain near 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but at preſent they are thought not to exceed 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their perſons, habits, and manners, reſemble the Germans. There is among them no middle ſtate of people; for every lord is a ſovereign, and every tenant a ſlave. But the emperor Joſeph II. generouſly diſcharged the Bohemian peaſants, on the

imperial demeſnes, from the ſtate of villanage in which they have been ſo long and ſo unjuſtly retained; and it will be happy if his example ſhould be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and they be thereby induced no longer to deprive their vaſſals of the rights of human nature. Although the Bohemians, at preſent, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly diſtinguiſhed themſelves as the moſt intrepid aſſertors of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witneſs the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was ſcarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Auſtrian power, and their generous ſtruggles for independency. Their virtues may be conſidered as the cauſes of their decay, as no means were left unemployed by their deſpotic maſters for breaking their ſpirit: though it is certain their internal jealouſies and diſſenſions greatly contributed to their ſubjection. Their cuſtoms and diverſions are the ſame as Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the eſtabliſhed religion of Bohemia, yet there are many proteſtants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion: and ſome of the Moravians have embraced a viſionary unintelligible proteſtantiſm, if it deſerves that name, which they have propagated, by their zealous miſſionaries, in ſeveral parts of the globe. They have a meeting-houſe in London, and obtained an act of parliament for a ſettlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRIC AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbiſhopric. The biſhoprics are Königſgratz, Breſlau, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally ſpeak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only univerſity in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the fineſt and moſt magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is ſo large, that the grand Pruſſian army, in its laſt ſiege, never could completely inveſt it. For this reaſon it is able to make a vigorous defence in caſe of a regular ſiege. The inhabitants are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciouſneſs, being computed not to exceed 70,000 Chriſtians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and forty cloiſters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are ſaid to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, ſome of which are fortified; but they are neither remarkable for ſtrength or manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia; it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glaſs, paper, and gunpowder. Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, has been already deſcribed.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian conſtitution ſtill ſubſiſt; but the government under the emperor is deſpotic. Their ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of towns. Their ſovereigns of late have not been fond of provoking them by ill uſage, as they have a general averſion towards the Auſtrians. This kingdom is frequently deſcribed as part of Germany, but with little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it ſubject to any of its laws. What gives ſome colour to this miſtake, is, that the king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the ſovereign

is pleaſed to exact from the ſtates of the kingdom, when they are annually aſſembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a liongules, the tail moved, and paſſed in ſaltier, crowned, langued, and armed, Or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility uſed to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany ſometimes impoſed a king upon them, and at length uſurped that throne themſelves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Auſtria, received three crowns, Hungary, the empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, two of the firſt reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Conſtance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occaſioned an inſurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Ziſca, aſſembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in ſeveral engagements, and drove the imperialiſts out of the kingdom. The diviſions of the Huſſites among themſelves enabled the emperor to regain and keep poſſeſſion of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a proteſtant king in the perſon of the prince palatine, ſon-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being ſtripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a ſubſiſtence. Since the war of thirty years, which deſolated the whole empire, the Bohemians have remained ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.

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# HUNGARY.

## EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 300 | between | 16-35 and 26 Eaſt long. | 36,060 |
| Breadth 200 | | 44-50 and 49-35 North lat. | |

Containing 87,575 ſquare miles, with 57 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the Houſe of Auſtria (for it formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) is bounded by Poland on the North; by Tranſylvania and Walachia Eaſt; by Sclavonia South; and by Auſtria and Moravia Weſt.

The kingdom of Hungary is uſually divided into Upper and Lower Hungary.

## UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE DANUBE.

Chief Towns.

Preſburg, ſituated on the Danube, E. long. 17-30. N. lat. 48-20.
Newhauſel, N. W.
Leopoldſtadt, N. W.
Chremnitz, N. W.
Schemnitz, in the middle.
Eſperies, N.
Caſchaw, N.
Tokay, N. E.
Zotmar, N. E.
Unguar, N. E.
Montgatz, N. E.
Waradin, Great, E.
Segedin, S. E.
Agria, in the middle.
Peſt, on the Danube, oppoſite to Buda.

## LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE DANUBE.

### Chief Towns.

Buda, on the Danube, E. long. 19-20. N. lat. 47-40.
Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.
Comorra, on the Danube, in the iſland of Schut.
Raab, on the Danube, oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Altenburg, W. oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Weiſſenburg, or Alba Regalis, ſituated E. of the lake called the Platten Sea.
Kaniſba, S.W. of the Platten Sea.
Five Churches, N. of the river Drave.

To which may be added Tameſwar, which has been conſidered as diſtinct from Hungary, becauſe it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has ſeveral times been in poſſeſſion of the Turks; but the Auſtrians gaining poſſeſſion of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeſwar is ninety-four miles long, and ſixty-ſeven broad, containing about 3850 miles: it has been divided into four diſtricts, Cſadat, Temeſwar, Werſchez, and Lugos. Temeſwar, the principal town, is ſituated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and conſequently the climate, of the ſouthern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, ſtagnated waters, and marſhes; but the northern part being mountainous and barren, the air is ſweet and wholeſome. No country in the world can boaſt a richer ſoil than that plain which extends 300 miles, from Preſburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, graſs, eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood: corn is in ſuch plenty, that it ſells for one-ſixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains ſeveral lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains, of conſiderable extent, and abounding with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſſeſſion of the country, particularly thoſe of Buda, are ſuffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary; though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their ſides grow the richeſt grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well ſtocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and ſilver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, chryſocolla, and terra-ſigillata. Before Hungary became the ſeat of deſtructive wars between Turks and Chriſtians, or fell under the power of the Houſe of Auſtria, thoſe mines were furniſhed with proper works and workmen, and produced vaſt revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint-houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all thoſe mines are now greatly diminiſhed in their value, their works being deſtroyed or demoliſhed: ſome of them, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, generally mouſe-coloured, and highly eſteemed by military officers, ſo that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Preſburg. In general its other vegetable and animal productions are the ſame with thoſe of Germany and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country, at leaſt in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary; and ſome of the deſcendants of their legionary forces are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Before the Turks obtained poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, Hungary was one of the moſt populous and flouriſhing kingdoms in Europe: and if the Houſe of Auſtria ſhould give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become ſo again. The population of Hungary, excluſive of Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia, was eſtimated, in 1776, by the celebrated Buſchin, to be 3,170,000; and Mr. Windiſh, an Hungarian, in his Geography of Hungary, publiſhed in 1780, ſays "the population, according to a new accurate examination, is 3,170,000, excluding Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia." But the committee appointed by the diet of 1791, to inquire into things of this nature, "ſome of whoſe notes," ſays Mr. Townſon, a late intelligent traveller in this country, "I have had in my hands, eſtimate the population of Hungary, in its greateſt extent, but always excluding Tranſylvania, at about 8,000,000, which, they add, is 1777 ſouls per ſquare mile. In N° 61 of Mr. Slotzer's *Staats Anzeigen*, there is a detailed account, which makes the total population 7,417,415."

The Hungarians are a brave, generous, and hardy race of men; their manners are peculiar to themſelves; and they pique themſelves on being deſcended from thoſe heroes who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. In their perſons they are well made. Their fur-caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a ſaſh, and their cloak or mantle, which is ſo contrived as to buckle under the arm, ſo that the right-hand may be always at liberty, gives them an air of military dignity. The men ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. Their uſual arms are the broad-ſword, and a kind of pole-axe, beſides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria; and their ſable dreſs, with ſleeves ſtrait to their arms, and their ſtays faſtened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and Engliſh ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. The inns upon the roads are moſt miſerable hovels, and even thoſe ſeldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for the peaſants, and their poultry, live in the ſame apartment with their owners. The gout and fever, owing to the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, are the predominant diſeaſes in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other ſtrangers ſettled in their country, the flatneſs of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diverſions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their anceſtors, even ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were ſo jealous of their liberties, that, rather than be tyranniſed over by the Houſe of Auſtria, they often put themſelves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late em-

preſs-queen, notwithſtanding the provocations they received from her houſe, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeſwar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at 450,000. There are in this country many faraons, or gypſies, ſuppoſed to be real deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are ſaid to reſemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propenſity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and cuſtoms; and it is aſſerted, that the laſcivious dances of Iſis, the worſhip of onions, many famous Egyptian ſuperſtitions and ſpecifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are ſtill in uſe among the female gypſies in Temeſwar.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of the Hungarians is the Roman-catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are proteſtants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exerciſe of their religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are Preſburg, Gran, and Colocza. The biſhoprics are Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and Five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is ſaid to reſemble the Hebrew. The better and the middlemoſt ranks ſpeak German; and almoſt all, even of the common people, ſpeak Latin, either pure or barbarous, ſo that the Latin may be ſaid to be here ſtill a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the univerſities (if they can be properly ſo called) of Firnan, Buba, Raab, and Caſchaw, are profeſſors of the ſeveral arts and ſciences, who uſed generally to be Jeſuits; ſo that the Lutherans and Calviniſts, who are more numerous than the Roman-catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other univerſities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The artificial curioſities of this country conſiſt of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Eſſeck, built over the Danube and Drave, is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. It was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtant from Belgrade are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, judged to be the moſt magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to diſtinguiſh them from the like works in other countries.

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities of Hungary is a cavern, in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad: its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away farther ſouth than has yet been diſcovered: as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-ſix. Many wonderful particulars are related of this cavern. Aſtoniſhing rocks are common in Hungary, and ſome of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Theſe are generally decayed from their ancient magnificence; but many of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia are kept. The crown, in the year 1784, was removed to Vienna by order of the emperor Joſeph II. But this meaſure gave ſo great offence, and excited ſuch violent diſcontents, that it was ſent back to Buda in 1790, where it was received with the moſt extravagant teſtimonies of joy, the

whole city and ſuburbs being illuminated This crown was ſent, in the year 1000, by pope Sylveſter II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors: it is of ſolid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with fifty-three ſapphires, fifty rubies, one large emerald, and three hundred and thirty-eight pearls. Beſides theſe ſtones, are the images of the apoſtles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a ſilver patriarchal croſs, which was afterwards inſerted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation, a biſhop carries it before the king. From the croſs is derived the title of apoſtolic king; the uſe of which was renewed under the reign of the empreſs-queen Maria-Thereſa. The ſceptre and the globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is ſaid to be the work of Giſele, ſpouſe of St. Stephen, who, they ſay, embroidered in gold the image of Jeſus Chriſt crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apoſtles, with a number of inſcriptions. The ſword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its ſtrength and fortifications; and the ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab is likewiſe a ſtrong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives conſiſt of metals, drugs, and ſalt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians diſlike the term of queen, and even called the late empreſs-queen, king Thereſa. Their government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, which aſſembly conſiſts of tables or houſes; the firſt compoſed of magnates, or the great officers of the crown, princes, counts, barons, and archbiſhops; and the ſecond of the abbots, prelates, and deputies from the chapters and each of the two and fifty counties, into which the kingdom is divided. Theſe houſes, however, form but one body, as their votes are taken together. The diet, beſides being convened on all great national events, ſhould meet at ſtated times. Under Matthias Corvinus, and Ferdinand I. it was decreed they ſhould be annual; and, under Leopold I. that they ſhould be triennial; which was confirmed by Charles VI. and is ſtill conſidered as the conſtitutional period. But ſovereigns and their miniſters often wiſh to get rid of theſe incumbrances; and lately, from 1764 to 1790, no diet was held; though many important affairs had happened within this period. It ought not to ſit more than two months. There is likewiſe a Hungary-office, which reſembles our chancery, and which reſides at Vienna; as the ſtadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the Britiſh privy-council, but has a municipal juriſdiction, does at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate; and the Geſpanſchafts reſemble our juſtices of the peace. Beſides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other ſubordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring into the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but ſeldom draws out of it above 10,000; theſe are generally light horſe, and well known in modern times by the name of Huſſars. They are not near ſo large as the German horſe: and therefore the huſſars ſtand up on their ſhort ſtirrups when they ſtrike. Their expedition and alertneſs have been found ſo ſerviceable in war, that the greateſt powers in Europe have troops that go by the ſame name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers

in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horſe and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a purſuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle. The ſovereign may ſummon the Hungarian nobility to take the field and defend their country. This ſervice is called an *inſurrectio*, and from it the high clergy are not exempt. In the frequent wars in which Hungary was formerly engaged, principally againſt the Turks, this ſervice was a rather ſevere obligation. The number of combatants each brought into the field was in proportion to his eſtate. The archbiſhop of Gran, and the biſhop of Erlau, brought each two ſtands of colours, and under each ſtand a thouſand men; the archbiſhop of Colocza, and ſeveral biſhops, a thouſand each. In the fatal battle of Mohatch, ſeven biſhops were left on the field. A general *inſurrection* of this kind was ſummoned by the emperor in the preſent war; but the treaty of Campo Formio having been concluded before the troops ſo raiſed began to act, they returned home.

Coins.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage; and there are ſtill extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete ſeries of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country than perhaps in any other in Europe.

Arms.] The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial enſigns, bears quarterly, barwiſe, argent and gules, of eight pieces.

History.] The Huns, after ſubduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were ſucceeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari; who were followed by the Sclavi in the beginning of the 9th century. At the cloſe of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took poſſeſſion of the country. Hungary was formerly an aſſemblage of different ſtates; and the firſt who aſſumed the title of king was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Chriſtianity. In his reign, the form of government was eſtabliſhed, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert aſcended the throne, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of thoſe conqueſts were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladiſlaus, bravely repulſed the Turks when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladiſlaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raiſed Matthias Corvinus, ſon of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting againſt Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle almoſt proved fatal to Hungary: but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the ſiſter of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he ſucceeded, with ſome difficulty; and that kingdom has ever ſince belonged to the Houſe of Auſtria, though by its conſtitution its crown ought to be elective.—For the reſt of the Hungarian hiſtory, ſee Germany.

# TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

THESE countries appear under one diviſion, for ſeveral reaſons, and particularly becauſe we have no account ſufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The moſt authentic is as follows:—TRANSYLVANIA belongs to the Houſe of Auſtria, and is bounded on the North by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the Eaſt by Moldavia and Walachia; on the South by Walachia; and on the Weſt by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between twenty-two and twenty-ſix degrees of Eaſt longitude, and forty-five and forty-eight of North latitude. Its length is about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 ſquare miles, ſurrounded on all ſides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Hungary. The air is wholeſome and temperate; but the wine of this country, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanſtadt, and its interior government ſtill partakes greatly of the ancient feudal ſyſtem, being compoſed of many independent ſtates and princes, who are little more than nominally ſubject to the Auſtrians. Papiſts, Lutherans, Calviniſts, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other ſectaries, here enjoy their ſeveral religions. Tranſylvania is thought to add but little to the Auſtrian revenue, though it exports ſome metals and ſalt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageſwar, Millenback, and Newmark. All ſorts of proviſions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanſtadt is a large, ſtrong, and well-built city, as are Clauſenburg and Weiſſenburg. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtadt, and the governor is aſſiſted by a council made up of Roman-catholics, Calviniſts, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonſtrances and repreſentations in caſe of grievances.

Tranſylvania is part of ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms before they could be ſubdued. It was overrun by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their deſcendants retain the ſame military character. The population of the country is not aſcertained; but if the Tranſylvanians can bring into the field, as has been aſſerted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants muſt be conſiderable. At preſent, their military force is reduced to ſix regiments of 1500 each; but it is well known, that, during the laſt two wars in which the Houſe of Auſtria was engaged, the Tranſylvanians did great ſervices. Hermanſtadt is its only biſhopric; and the Tranſylvanians at preſent ſeem to trouble themſelves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman-catholic is the eſtabliſhed church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Chriſtianity there about the year 1000; and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaivod or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under ſlavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the ſovereignty of Tranſylvania, as alſo of Sclavonia, to the Houſe of Auſtria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal ariſtocracy, which their ſovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October, 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppreſſions of the nobility, near 16,000 aſſembled, and committed great

depredations on thoſe whoſe conduct had been obnoxious to them. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to eſcape with their lives. The revolters were diſappointed in their attempt on Clauſenburg; and afterwards offered to ſeparate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vaſſalage. Lenient terms were granted to them; and, with the puniſhment of a few, the inſurrection was ſuppreſſed.

Sclavonia lies between the 17th and 21ſt degrees of Eaſt longitude, and the 55th and 46th of North latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 ſquare miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the North, by the Danube on the Eaſt, by the Save on the South, and by Stiria in Auſtria on the Weſt. The reaſon why Hungary, Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria in thoſe parts, contain a ſurpriſing variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is becauſe liberty here made its laſt ſtand againſt the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into thoſe quarters. The thickneſs of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the ſtrength of the country, favoured their reſiſtance; and their deſcendants, notwithſtanding the power of the Turks, the Auſtrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, ſtill retain the ſame ſpirit of independency. Without regarding the arrangements made by the ſovereigns of Europe, they are quite under the government that leaves them moſt at liberty. That they are generous as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the Houſe of Auſtria, which, till the laſt two wars, never was ſenſible of their value and valour; inſomuch, that it is well known that they preſerved the pragmatic ſanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly ſo much employed the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *ſlave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, ſo late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Tranſylvania, yet the ravages of war are ſtill viſible in the face of the country, which lies in a great meaſure unimproved. The Sclavonians are zealous Roman-catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two biſhopries; that of Poſega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no univerſities. Eſſeck is a large and ſtrong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marſhes, five miles long and fifteen pieces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Auſtrians and Turks. The inhabitants are compoſed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vaſt number of other people, whoſe names were never known even to the Auſtrians themſelves, but from the military muſter-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the laſt two wars. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the ſtates ſend repreſentatives to the diet of Hungary.

Croatia lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is eighty miles in length, and ſeventy in breadth, and contains about 2,500 ſquare miles. The manners, government, religion, language, and cuſtoms of the Croats, are ſimilar to thoſe of the Sclavonians and Tranſylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and, as ſuch, are famed in modern hiſtory, under the name of Pandours, and various other deſig-

Plate XV.

# POLAND.
from the best
*AUTHORITIES.*

BALTIC SEA

GULF OF RIGA

LIVONIA

COURLAND

SAMOGITIA

PRUSSIA

GULF OF DANTZIC

KONINGSBERG

DANTZIC

MARIENBURG

GERMANY

LITHUANIA

POLAND

RUSSIA

HUNGARY

Carpathian Mountains

TARTARY

Moldavia

Wallachia

VIENNA

Cracow

Warsaw

Lublin

Brzesc

Grodek

Minsk

Nowogrodek

Wilno

Trocki

Polock

Witepsk

Mscislaw

Smolensko

Kiow

Bender

Ochakow

Black Sea

Dniester R.

Dnieper R.

Dwina R.

Vistula R.

Niemen R.

Vistula R.

Pripet R.

Neval R.

Volga R.

Don R.

Dog R.

Degrees of Longitude East from London.

## References to the Palatimates.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Pomerelia | 9. Podlakia | 17. Kalisz | 25. Brzesc |
| 2. Marienburg | 10. Trocki | 18. Brzesc | 26. Russia |
| 3. Culm | 11. Wilno | 19. Siradia | 27. Russia |
| 4. Poznan | 12. Polock | 20. Lenczyca | 28. Wolhynia |
| 5. Gnezna | 13. Witepsk | 21. Rawa | 29. Kiow |
| 6. Inoroclaw | 14. Nowogrodek | 22. Cracow | 30. Padolia |
| 7. Polock | 15. Minsk | 23. Sandomir | 31. Braclaw |
| 8. Mazovia | 16. Mcislaw | 24. Lublin | |

British Miles 60 to a Degree. 0 20 40 60 80 100 120

Polish Miles 20 to a Degree. 0 5 10 15 20 25 30

nations. The truth is, the Houſe of Auſtria finds its intereſt in ſuffering them and the neighbouring nations to live in their own manner. The towns are blended with each other, there ſcarcely being any diſtinction of boundaries. Carolſtadt is a place of ſome note, but Zagrab (already mentioned) is the capital of Croatia. All the ſovereignty exerciſed over them by the Auſtrians ſeems to conſiſt in the military arrangements for bringing them occaſionally into the field. A viceroy preſides over Croatia, jointly with Sclavonia, and

Hungarian DALMATIA. This lies in the upper part of the Adriatic Sea, and conſiſts of five diſtricts, in which the moſt remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and ſituated near the ſea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren ſoil. The biſhop of this place is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor reſides in the old palace, called the Royal Caſtle. 2. Ottoſchatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortreſs where the governor and the greateſt part of the garriſon reſide is ſurrounded with a wall and ſome towers: but the reſt of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water: ſo that one neighbour cannot viſit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uſcocs, a people, who, being galled by oppreſſion, eſcaped out of Dalmatia; from whence they obtained the name of Uſcocs, from the word Scoco, which ſignifies a *deſerter*. They are alſo called ſpringers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in ſcattered houſes, and others in large villages. They are a rough, ſavage people, large-bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their viſible employment is grazing. They uſe the Walachian language, and in their religious ſentiments and mode of worſhip approach neareſt to the Greek church; but ſome of them are Roman-catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs alſo to the emperor as well as to the Turks. It lies to the eaſt of Tranſylvania, and its principal towns are Tregohitz, Buchareſt, and Severin.

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# POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

## SITUATION, AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 700 | between | 16 and 34 Eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth | 680 | | 46 and 57 North latitude. |

Containing 160,800 ſquare miles, with 55 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the late extraordinary partition of this country, the kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed (anciently called Sarmatia), was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic Sea; on the Eaſt by Muſcovy; on the South by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the Weſt by Germany; and, had the form of its government been as perfect as its ſituation was compact, it might have been one of the moſt powerful kingdoms in Europe. Its grand diviſions were,

| POLAND. | | Len. Miles. | Bre. Miles. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Proteſtants | Courland, ſubject to Ruſſia | 174 | 80 | Mittaw. |
| Papiſts | Lithuania | 333 | 310 | Wilna |
| | Podolia | 360 | 120 | Karſinleck |
| | Volhinia | 305 | 150 | Lucko |
| | Great Poland | 208 | 180 | Gneſna |
| | Red Ruſſia | 232 | 185 | Lemburg |
| | Little Poland | 230 | 130 | Cracow |
| | Poleſia | 186 | 97 | Breſſici |
| | Maſovia | 152 | 90 | WARSAW (E. long. 21. 5. N. lat. 52. 15.) |
| | Samogitia | 155 | 98 | Raſiem |
| | Pruſſia Royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia | 118 | 104 | Elbing |
| | Polachia | 133 | 42 | Bielſk. |

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Pruſſia Royal, are ſtyled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland, but were ſeized by the late king of Pruſſia.

After the final diſmemberment in 1793, Poland was diſtributed among the partitioning powers as follows:

Auſtria { Little Poland, Red Ruſſia, A part of Podolia } Now Galicia and Lodomeria.

Pruſſia { Great Poland, Poliſh Pruſſia, A ſmall part of Lithuania, Maſovia, Polachia.

Ruſſia { Samogitia, Remainder of Lithuania, Poleſia, Volhinia, Podolia.

NAMES.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word ſignifying a country fit for hunting; for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beaſts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is ſuch as may be expected from ſo extenſive but level a climate. In the north parts, it is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlaſting ſnow, which has been known to fall in the midſt of ſummer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being ſo unſettled, either in winter or ſummer, as might be ſuppoſed from ſo northerly a ſituation; but the air is rather infalubrious on account of the numerous woods and moraſſes.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.] Poland is, in general, a level country, and the ſoil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vaſt quantities that

are ſent from thence down the Viſtula to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The paſtures of Poland, eſpecially in Podolia, are extremely rich. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron, ochre, black agate, ſeveral ſpecies of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite; falſe precious ſtones, and marine petrifactions. The interior parts of Poland contain foreſts, which furniſh timber in ſuch great quantities, that it is employed in houſe-building, inſtead of bricks, ſtones, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and ſome grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture; but their wine ſeldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clay fit for pipes and earthen-ware. The water of many ſprings is boiled into ſalt. The virtues of a ſpring in the palatinate of Cracow, which increaſes and decreaſes with the moon, are ſaid to be wonderful for the preſervation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and ſome of them to 150 years of age. This ſpring is inflammable, and, by applying a torch to it, it flames like the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the ſurface without heating the water; and if neglected to be extinguiſhed which it may eaſily be, it communicates itſelf, by ſubterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it conſumes; and about thirty-five years ago the flames are ſaid to have laſted for three years before they could be entirely extinguiſhed.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Viſtula or Weyſel, the Neiſter, Neiper or Boriſthenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzeſty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is ſaid to dye thoſe who waſh in it of a ſwarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though ſome are peculiar to itſelf, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable), which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and it ſerves for food, dreſſed various ways. A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces as large as a man's fiſt, ſuppoſed to be the production of a reſinous pine.

The foreſts of Warſovia or Maſovia contain great numbers of uri, or buffaloes, whoſe fleſh the Poles powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. Horſes, wolves, boars, the glutton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Poliſh foreſts; and there is a ſpecies of wild horſes and aſſes, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the beſt fur in the country; but the elk, which is common in Poland, as well as in ſome other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The fleſh of the Poliſh elk forms the moſt delicious part of their greateſt feaſts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad, like a wild goat's. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that, upon diſſecting an elk, there was found in his head ſome large flies, with its brain almoſt eaten away; and it is an obſervation ſufficiently atteſted, that, in the large woods and wilderneſſes of the north, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger ſort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter-quarters in its head. This perſecution is thought to affect the elk with

the falling ſickneſs, by which means it is frequently taken more eaſily than it would be otherwiſe.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: it reſembles a guinea-pig, but ſeems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occaſionally for food, till April: they have ſeparate apartments for their proviſions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by ten or twelve in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any ſpecies of birds peculiar to itſelf; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and their fleſh is reckoned to be unwholeſome. Lithuania abounds in birds; among thoſe of prey are the eagle and vulture. The *remiz*, or little ſpecies of titmouſe, is frequently found in theſe parts: it is remarkable for the wondrous ſtructure of its pendent neſt, formed in the ſhape of a long purſe, with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Some authors have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants: and when we conſider that the Poles have no colonies, and ſometimes have enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are ſaid to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation has not been exaggerated. But ſince the partition and diſmemberment of the kingdom, the number is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Ruſſia are the largeſt; by Auſtria the moſt populous; and by Pruſſia the moſt commercial.

The Poles, in their perſons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their ſhapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable; and their women ſprightly, yet modeſt, and ſubmiſſive to their huſbands. Their mode of ſalute is to incline their heads, and to ſtrike their breaſts with one of their hands, while they ſtretch the other towards the ground; but when a common perſon meets a ſuperior, he bows his head near to the earth, and with his head touches the leg near to the heel of the perſon to whom he pays obeiſance. Their diverſions are warlike and manly: vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horſe, hunting, ſkating, bull and bear baiting. They uſually travel on horſeback; a Poliſh gentleman will not travel a ſtone's-throw without his horſe; and they are ſo hardy, that they will ſleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in froſt and ſnow. The Poles never live above ſtairs, and their apartments are not united: the kitchen is on one ſide, the ſtable on another, the dwelling houſe on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themſelves with a few ſmall beds; and if any lodge at their houſes, they muſt carry their bedding with them. When they ſit down to dinner or ſupper, they have their trumpets and other muſic playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all ſerving with the moſt profound reſpect; for the nobles who are poor frequently find themſelves under the neceſſity of ſerving thoſe that are rich; but their patron uſually treats them with civility, and permits the eldeſt to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peaſant-boy to wait on him, maintained by the maſter of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor ſpoons, but every gueſt brings them with him; and they no ſooner ſit down to table, than all the doors are ſhut, and not opened till the company return home. It is uſual for a nobleman to give his ſervant part of his meat, which he eats as he ſtands behind him, and to let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf; but

this is the leſs extraordinary, if it be conſidered that theſe ſervants are eſteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in faſhion, both here and in Ruſſia; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to deſcribe the grandeur and equipages of the Poliſh nobility; and the reader muſt figure to himſelf an idea of all that is faſtidious, ceremonious, expenſive, and ſhowy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unuſual to ſee the lady of a Poliſh grandee, beſides a coach and ſix, with a great number of ſervants, attended by an old gentleman-uſher, an old gentlewoman for her gouvernante, and a dwarf of each ſex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is ſurrounded by a great number of flambeaux.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens or burghers, and peaſants; the peaſants are divided into two ſorts—thoſe of the crown, and thoſe belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour, but think a *gentleman of Poland* is the higheſt appellation they can enjoy. They have many conſiderable privileges; and, indeed, the boaſted Poliſh liberty was properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient cuſtom and preſcription. Under their ancient conſtitution, before the laſt partition of the country, they had a power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals; paid no taxes; were ſubject to none but the king; might chooſe whom they would for their king; and none but they, and the burghers of ſome particular towns, could purchaſe lands. In ſhort, they were almoſt entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well-regulated ſtate; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. Theſe great privileges make the Poliſh gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, with a deſpotic power over their tenants, whom they call their ſubjects, and transfer or aſſign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Caſimir the Great, the lord could put his peaſant to death with impunity; and, when the latter had no children, conſidered himſelf as the heir, and ſeized all his effects. In 1347, Caſimir preſcribed a fine for the murder of a peaſant; and enacted, that, in caſe of his deceaſe without iſſue, his next heir ſhould inherit. But theſe and other regulations proved ineffectual againſt the power and tyranny of the nobles, and were either abrogated or eluded. Some of them had eſtates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and were alſo hereditary ſovereigns of cities, with which the king had no concern. One of their nobles ſometimes poſſeſſed above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them could raiſe 8 or 10,000 men. The houſe of a nobleman was a ſecure aſylum for perſons who had committed any crime; for none might preſume to take them from thence by force. They had their horſe and foot guards, which were upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their ante-chambers, and marched before them when they went abroad. They made an extraordinary figure when they came to the diet, ſome of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the ſenate were often determined by the ſword. When great men had ſuits at law, the diet or other tribunals decided them; yet the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword; for the juſtice of the kingdom was commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes

they would raiſe 6000 men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's cities, and beſiege caſtles and forts; for they thought it below them to ſubmit to the ſentence of judges, without a field-battle. As to the peaſants, they are born ſlaves, and have no idea of liberty. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation by another peaſant equal in value. A nobleman who is deſirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden houſe, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him the firſt year, and to improve for his own future ſubſiſtence and the advantage of his lord.

The clergy have many immunities; they are all free men, and in ſome inſtances, have their own courts of juſtice, in which the canon law is practiſed. A biſhop is entitled to all the privileges of a ſenator; was uſually appointed by the king, and confirmed by the pope, but afterwards nominated by the king out of three candidates choſen by the permanent council. The archbiſhop of Gneſna is primate. The burghers ſtill enjoy ſome freedom and privileges; they chuſe their own burgomaſter and council, regulate their interior police, and have their own criminal courts of juſtice.

The peaſants are at the abſolute diſpoſal of their maſter, and all their acquiſitions ſerve only to enrich him. They are indiſpenſably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permiſſion of their lords; and they are expoſed to the diſmal, and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical maſters, who oppreſs them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuſe it in the moſt groſs and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being expoſed to the moſt brutal treatment. One bleſſing, however, attends the wretched ſituation of the Poliſh peaſants, which is their inſenſibility. Born ſlaves, and accuſtomed from their infancy to hardſhips and ſevere labour, the generality of them ſcarcely entertain an idea of better circumſtances and more liberty. They regard their maſters as a ſuperior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their ſevere lot. Cheerful, and contented with their condition, they are ready upon every occaſion to ſacrifice themſelves and their families for their maſter, eſpecially if the latter takes care to feed them well. Moſt of them ſeem to think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. There are ſome ſtyled German peaſants, whoſe anceſtors were indulged, on ſettling in Poland, in the uſe of the German laws, who enjoyed ſeveral privileges not poſſeſſed by the generality of the Poliſh peaſants: their villages are better built, they poſſeſs more cattle, pay their quit-rents better, and are cleaner and neater in their perſons. We have been the more circumſtantial in deſcribing the manners and preſent ſtate of the Poles, as they bear a near reſemblance, in many particulars, to thoſe of Europe in general during the feudal ages; but their tyranny over their tenants and vaſſals ſeems to be carried to a much greater height. Lately, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened underſtandings have ventured to give liberty to their vaſſals. The firſt who granted this freedom was Zemoiſki, formerly great chancellor, who, in 1760, enfranchiſed ſix villages in the palatinate of Maſovia, and afterwards on all his eſtates. The events has ſhown the project to be no leſs judicious than humane—friendly to the nobles' own intereſts as well as the happineſs of the peaſants; for it appears, that, in the diſtricts in which the new arrangement has been introduced, the po-

pulation of the villages is conſiderably increaſed, and the revenues of their eſtates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Staniſlaus, nephew of the late king of Poland, likewiſe enfranchiſed four villages near Warſaw; and not only emancipated his peaſants from ſlavery, but condeſcended to direct their affairs. So that better times in that diſtreſſed country may be expected.

Torture was aboliſhed in Poland in 1770, by an edict of the diet, under the influence of the king. Atrocious crimes, ſuch as murder, &c. are puniſhed by beheading or hanging; leſſer delinquencies by whipping, impriſonment, and hard labour: the nobles never ſuffer any corporeal puniſhment, but are liable only to impriſonment and death.

The inns in this country are long ſtables, built with boards, and covered with ſtraw, without furniture or windows; there are chambers at one end; but none can lodge there, becauſe of flies and other vermin; ſo that ſtrangers generally chooſe rather to lodge among the horſes. Travellers are obliged to carry proviſion with them; and when foreigners want a ſupply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with neceſſaries.

DRESS.] The dreſs of the Poles is rather ſingular. They ſhave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown, and men of all ranks generally wear large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and girded with a ſaſh, but the ſleeves fit as cloſe to their arms as a waiſtcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtbands, and they wear neither ſtock nor neckcloth. Inſtead of ſhoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin ſoles, and deep iron heels bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a ſabre, or cutlaſs, by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, and others the ſkins of tigers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty ſuits of clothes, all as rich as poſſible, and which deſcend from father to ſon. Were it not for our own partiality to ſhort dreſſes, we muſt acknowledge that of the Poles to be pictureſque and majeſtic. Charles II. of England, thought of introducing the Poliſh dreſs into his court, and, after his reſtoration, wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of the Engliſh broad-cloth; but diſcontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women very much reſembles that of the men; a ſimple Polonaiſe, or long robe edged with fur; but ſome people of faſhion, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. As to the peaſants, in winter they wear a ſheep's-ſkin, with the wool inwards, and in ſummer a thick coarſe cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the ſole of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and, in the diſtrict of Samogitia particularly, make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

RELIGION.] The number of proteſtants, conſiſting of Lutherans and Calviniſts, in the republic of Poland, is very conſiderable; and when theſe are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called DISSIDENTS. At the ſame time, the Poliſh nobility and the bulk of the nation are tenacious of the Roman-catholic religion. The treaty of Oliva, concluded in 1660, tolerated the diſſidents, and was guaranteed by the

principal powers in Europe; but was ſo diſregarded by the Poles, that in the year 1724, they made a public maſſacre of the proteſtants at Thorn. Numerous proviſions were made for the protection of the proteſtants who were perſecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monaſteries in Poland are, by ſome writers, ſaid to be 576, and the nunneries 117, beſides 246 ſeminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are poſſeſſed of a very large proportion of the lands and revenues of the kingdom; but in general are illiterate bigots, and the monks are ſome of the moſt profligate of mankind, without apprehending any diſgrace to their order, or dreading the cenſure of their ſuperiors, who require equal indulgence. The popiſh clergy have had great influence in Poland, at different periods, notwithſtanding the treaties and capitulations which have been made in favour of the proteſtants and the members of the Greek church. Indeed it has been chiefly owing to the influence and conduct of the popiſh clergy that the peaſants in Poland have been reduced to ſuch a ſtate of wretched ſlavery.

The principles of Socinianiſm made a very early and conſiderable progreſs in Poland. A tranſlation of the Bible into the Poliſh language was publiſhed in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the ſame perſons, the catechiſm, or confeſſion, of the Unitarians, was publiſhed at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extenſive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socinians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly perſecuted. However, it was lately reſolved between the republic and partitioning powers, that all diſſidents ſhould henceforth enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, though to continue excluded from the diet, the ſenate, and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; alſo ſchools and ſeminaries of their own; they are capable of ſitting in the inferior courts of juſtice, and three of their communion are admitted as aſſeſſors in the tribunal to receive appeals in religion.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbiſhoprics; Gneſna and Lemburg. The archbiſhop of Gneſna, beſides being primate, is always a cardinal. The other biſhops, particularly of Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Poliſh language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harſh and unharmonious, on acount of the vaſt number of conſonants it employs. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words: but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great reſtorer of the true aſtronomical ſyſtem, Vorſius, and ſome other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet many circumſtances in this country are far from being favourable to learning. Latin is ſpoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in ſome provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever ſhown for learning; the ſervitude of the lower people; and the univerſal ſuperſtition among all ranks of them, have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithſtanding the liberal efforts of his late majeſty, ſtill contiue to retard, the progreſs of letters in this kingdom. However, of late, a taſte for ſcience has ſpread itſelf among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accompliſhment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Poland are thoſe of Cracow, Wilna, and Poſna or Poſen. The firſt conſiſts of eleven colleges, and

has the ſuperviſorſhip of fourteen grammar-ſchools diſperſed through the city. The number of ſtudents, in 1778, amounted to 600. Wilna was under the ſuperintendence of the Jeſuits; but after their ſuppreſſion the king eſtabliſhed a committee of education, who appoint profeſſors, and direct their ſalaries and ſtudies: that of Poſna was rather a Jeſuits' college than an univerſity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The frequent incurſions of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations, into Poland, probably forced the women ſometimes to leave their children expoſed in the woods, where we muſt ſuppoſe they were nurſed by bears and other wild beaſts; otherwiſe it is difficult to account for their ſubſiſtence. It is certain that ſuch beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, diveſted of almoſt all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours; but it is ſaid that ſome of them have, by proper management, attained to the uſe of ſpeech.

The ſalt-mines in Poland conſiſt of wonderful caverns, ſeveral hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of theſe are dug four different kinds of ſalts; one extremely hard, like cryſtal; another ſofter, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; theſe are all blackiſh, but the fourth is ſomewhat freſher. Theſe four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one ſide of them is a ſtream of ſalt water, and on the other one of freſh. The revenue ariſing from theſe, and other ſalt mines, is very conſiderable, and formed part of the royal revenue, before ſeized by Auſtria: the annual average profit of thoſe of Wiolitzka, eight miles from Cracow, was about 98,000l. ſterling. Out of ſome mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-eaſt of Cracow, are dug ſeveral kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's uſe, and ſupply all Poland with earthen-ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deſerts of Podolia, are ſeveral grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preſerved, though buried a vaſt number of years ſince, being neither ſo hard no ſo black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they uſed to wear. It is thought that this preſerving quality is owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and ſandy. The artificial rarities of Poland are but few, the chief being the gold, ſilver, and enamelled veſſels preſented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preſerved in the cathedral of Gneſna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Warſaw lies on the Viſtula, and almoſt in the centre of Poland. It was the royal reſidence, and contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, beſides churches and convents. It is now ſubject to Pruſſia, having been allotted to that power by the laſt partition. It is ſaid to contain near 70,000 inhabitants; but a great number are foreigners. The ſtreets are ſpacious, but ill paved, and the greateſt part of the houſes, particularly in the ſuburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a ſtrong contraſt of wealth and poverty, as does every part of this unhappy country. It has little or no commerce. The ſame may be ſaid of Cracow, the ancient capital; for we are told, that notwithſtanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich ſalt-mines, and is ſaid to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconſiderable. The city ſtands in an extenſive plain watered by the Viſtula, and, with the ſuburbs, occupies a vaſt ſpace of ground; but both together ſcarcely contain 16,000 ſouls. It is ſurrounded with high brick walls, ſtrengthened with round and ſquare towers in the ancient ſtyle of fortification.

Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, but a large and ſtraggling place, containing ruined palaces, falling houſes, and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabitants,—1000 of whom are Jews, and 3000 employed in new manufactures of cloths, camlets, linen, cotton, ſilk, ſtuffs, &c. eſtabliſhed there by the king in 1776. He likewiſe eſtabliſhed in this place an academy of phyſic for Lithuania, in which ten ſtudents are inſtructed for phyſic, and twenty for ſurgery, who were all taught and maintained at his own expenſe.

Dantzic is the capital of Poliſh Pruſſia, and is famous in hiſtory on many accounts, particularly for being formerly at the head of the Hanſeatic aſſociation, commonly called the Hanſe-towns. It is ſituated on the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city: its houſes generally are five ſtories high; and many of its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, although it ſeems to be ſomewhat paſt its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the preſident De Thou wrote his much eſteemed *Hiſtoria ſui Temporis*, in which, under the year 1607, he ſo highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a ſmall adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſhes, with many convents and hoſpitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000; but Dr. Buſching tells us, that, in the year 1752, there died but 1846 perſons. Its own ſhipping is numerous; but the foreign ſhips conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, of which 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Poliſh veſſels came down the Viſtula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchleſs granaries; whence that grain is diſtributed to many foreign nations; beſides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſtores, and vaſt variety of other articles. Dr. Buſching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconſiderable town, as ſome pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch; but generally have ſhown a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them in their immunities, which extend even to the privilege of coining money. Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, it could not, through its ſituation, ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences. In 1734, the inhabitants diſcovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Staniſlaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Ruſſians, were at their gates, but even in poſſeſſion of the city. The reaſon why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland, is becauſe, not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themſelves under the protection of Poland; reſerving to themſelves large and ample privileges. This city, as well as that of Thorn, were exempted by the king of Pruſſia (Frederic II.) from thoſe claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; notwithſtanding which, he ſoon after thought proper to ſeize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Poliſh Pruſſia. He then proceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port-duties belonging to that city, and erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and in-

ſupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. To complete the ſyſtem of oppreſſion, cuſtom-houſes were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, ſo that no perſon could go in or out of the town without being ſearched in the ſtricteſt manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic received from the king of Pruſſia, though few cities have ever exiſted which have been comprehended in ſo many general and particular treaties, and whoſe rights and liberties have been ſo frequently ſecured, and guaranteed by ſo many great powers, and by ſuch a long and regular ſucceſſion of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences: by the interpoſition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by deputies at Warſaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September; by which, as now acceded to by the citizens, the trade of the city was to be reſtored to its former ſtability. Notwithſtanding this, however, in the year 1793, the Pruſſian troops took poſſeſſion of Dantzic; the burgomaſter and council of the city having, on the 2d of April, aſſembled at the town-houſe, at the requeſt of the late king of Pruſſia, by public declaration ordered every perſon to follow his trade and buſineſs as uſual, and remain peaceably in his houſe, when the Pruſſians ſhould enter that city. The city of Thorn was alſo treated by the king of Pruſſia in the ſame unjuſt and oppreſſive manner with that of Dantzic, and is now added to his dominions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief exports of Poland are all ſpecies of grain, hemp, flax, cattle, maſts, planks, pitch and tar, honey, wax, pot-aſh and tallow: its imports are foreign wines, cloths, ſtuffs, manufactured ſilks and cotton, fine linen, hardware, tin, copper, ſilver, and gold, glaſs-ware, furs, &c. Some linen and woollen cloths, ſilks, ſtuffs, camlets, lace, and hardwares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland and Lithuania; but commerce is chiefly confined to the city of Dantzic, and the other towns on the Viſtula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon the old conſtitution of Poland. It differed little from ariſtocracy: hence Poland has been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king was head of the republic, and was elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warſaw. They elected him on horſeback; and in caſe there ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority had no controul over them, but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres; but if the minority were ſufficiently ſtrong, a civil war enſued. Immediately after his election, he ſigned the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engaged that the crown ſhould be elective—that his ſucceſſor ſhould be appointed during his life—that the diets ſhould be aſſembled every two years—that every noble or gentleman in the realm ſhould have a vote in the diet of election, and that in caſe the king ſhould infringe the laws and privileges of the nation, his ſubjects ſhould be abſolved from their allegiance.—In fact, the king was no more than preſident of the ſenate, which was compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of Lemburg, fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great officers of ſtate, the palatines, and caſtellans. The palatines were the governors of the provinces, who held their offices for life.—The caſtellans' offices in time of peace were almoſt nominal; but when the military or feudal ſervices were required, they were the lieutenants of the palatines, and commanded the troops of their ſeveral diſtricts.

The diets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary: the former met once in two, and ſometimes three years; the latter was ſummoned by the

king, upon critical emergencies, and continued no longer than a fortnight; but one diſſenting voice rendered all their deliberations ineffectual. Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which could ſit but ſix weeks, there were dietines, or provincial diets, held in different diſtricts. The king, with the advice of the permanent council, ſent them letters, containing the heads of the buſineſs that was to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate might ſit in the dietine, and chooſe nuncios or deputies, to carry their reſolutions to the grand diet. The great diet conſiſted of the king, ſenators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and 70 for Pruſſia: it met twice at Warſaw, and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland; but ſince the preſent reign, they have been been always ſummoned to Warſaw.

The partitioning powers, at the time of their firſt diſmemberment of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the conſtitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confuſion. The executive power, which was entruſted to the king and ſenate, was veſted in the permanent council, compoſed of the king, ſenate, and the equeſtrian order. The king, as preſident, the primate, and three biſhops, nine lay ſenators, four from the miniſtry of the republic, the marſhal, with 17 counſellors of the equeſtrian order,—in all 36. Of the 18 ſenators, ſix from each province of Great Poland, Little Poland, and Lithuania. They inſiſted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which was at laſt obtained. By the *firſt*, "that the crown of Poland ſhall be for ever elective, and all order of ſucceſſion proſcribed;" thus the excluſion of a king's ſon and grandſon removed the proſpect of an hereditary ſovereignty, and entailed upon the kingdom all the evils inſeparable from an elective monarchy. By the *ſecond*, "that foreign candidates to the throne ſhall be excluded, and no perſon can be choſen king of Poland, excepting a native Pole, of noble origin, and poſſeſſing land in the kingdom" the Houſe of Saxony, and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and reſtore its provinces and liberties, were ſet aſide. By the *third*, "the government of Poland ſhall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form;" the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equeſtrian order, were confirmed in their utmoſt latitude. And by the *fourth*, "a permanent council ſhall be eſtabliſhed, in which the executive power ſhall be veſted; and in this council the equeſtrian order, hitherto excluded from the adminiſtration of affairs in the interval of diets, ſhall be admitted;" ſo that the prerogatives of the crown were ſtill farther diminiſhed; but this change of the conſtitution was intended by the partitioning powers to ſerve their own purpoſes, and give a large ſcope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not as yet ſeized.

REVENUES.] The income of the kings of Poland generally amounted to 140,000l. ſterling. The public revenues aroſe chiefly from the crown-lands, the ſalt mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Auſtrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000l. ſterling; ancient tolls and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, of the government of Cracow and diſtrict of Niepoliomiez.—Of the revenues received from Poland by the powers among whom it has been divided, nothing can, at preſent, be affirmed with certainty.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The pride of the Poliſh nobility is ſuch, that

they always appear in the field on horſeback; and it is ſaid that Poland could raiſe with eaſe 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry; but it muſt be underſtood that ſervants are included. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it conſiſted, in 1778, of 12,310 men in Poland, and 7,465 in Lithuania, cantoned into crown-lands.—The Poliſh huſſars are the fineſt and moſt ſhowy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both thoſe bodies wear defenſive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The reſt of their cavalry are armed with muſkets and heavy ſcymetars. Yet the Poliſh cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field; for though the men are brave, and their horſes excellent, they are ſtrangers to all diſcipline. It is certain, notwithſtanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by diſcipline, and that, on various occaſions, particularly under John Sobieſki, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels.

ORDERS.] The "*Order of the White Eagle*" was firſt inſtituted by Uladiſlaus, in the year 1325, but revived by Auguſtus I. in the year 1705, to attach to him ſome of the Poliſh nobles, who, he feared, were inclined to Staniſlaus, his competitor: it was conferred alſo on the czar Peter the Great, of Ruſſia. The late king inſtituted the "*Order of St. Staniſlaus*," ſoon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion, with the image of St. Staniſlaus, enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red ribband edged with white. The ſtar of the order is ſilver, and in the centre is a cypher of S.A.R. (Staniſlaus Auguſtus Rex), encircled with the motto "*Præmiando incitat.*"

HISTORY.] Poland, of old, was poſſeſſed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Ruſs and Tartars. It was divided into many ſmall ſtates or principalities, each almoſt independent of another, though they generally had ſome prince who was paramount over the reſt. In the year 700, the people, through the oppreſſion of their petty chiefs, gave the ſupreme command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His poſterity failing, in the year 830, a peaſant, named Piaſtus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was ſo long and auſpicious, that every native Pole who has ſince been elected king is called a Piaſt. From this period till the acceſſion of Miciſlaus II. 964, we have no very certain records of the hiſtory of Poland. The title of duke was retained till the year 999, when Boleſlaus aſſumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Pruſſia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleſlaus II. added Red Ruſſia to Poland, by marrying the heireſs of that duchy, anno 1059. Jagello, who, in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania, and a pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Chriſtian, but was at pains to bring over his ſubjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to thoſe of Poland; which gave ſuch influence to his poſterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preſerved in his family, until the male line became extinct in Sigiſmund Auguſtus, in 1572, who admitted the reformed, with Greeks and all other ſects, to a ſeat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges before confined to the catholics. He gave ſuch evident marks of favour to the proteſtant confeſſion, that he was ſuſpected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland: theſe were, Henry duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Auſtria. The French intereſt prevailed, by private bribes to the nobles, and a ſtipula-

tion to pay an annual penſion to the republic from the revenues of France; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had eſpouſed Maximilian's intereſt, endeavoured once more to revive his pretenſions; but the majority of the Poles being deſirous to chooſe a prince who might reſide among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Tranſylvania, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with ſome oppoſition from the Auſtrian faction, took the wiſeſt method to eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne, by marrying Anne, the ſiſter of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, and of the royal houſe of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by eſtabliſhing a new militia, compoſed of Coſſacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he beſtowed the Ukraine, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles choſe Sigiſmund, ſon of John, king of Sweden, by Catharine, ſiſter of Sigiſmund II. for their king.

Sigiſmund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled, as we have ſeen in the hiſtory of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war enſued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigiſmund being ſecured in the throne of Poland, aſpired to that of Ruſſia as well as Sweden; but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unſucceſsful wars with the Turks and Swedes. At laſt a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England: but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes ſhould keep Elbing, Memel, Branuſberg, and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In 1623, Sigiſmund died, and Uladiſlaus, his ſon, ſucceeded. This prince was ſucceſsful both againſt the Turks and the Ruſſians, and obliged the Swedes to reſtore all the Poliſh dominions they had taken in Pruſſia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being inſtigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Coſſacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed was carried on againſt the Coſſacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Coſſacs, naturally a brave people, became deſperate; and on the ſucceſſion of John II. brother to Uladiſlaus, the Coſſac general Schmielinſki defeated the Poles in two great battles, and forced them to a diſhonourable peace. It appears that, during the courſe of this war, the Poliſh nobility behaved as the worſt of ruffians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; while his nobility diſapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. As the jealouſy hereby occaſioned continued, the Ruſſians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Coſſacs, they, in 1654, took Smolenſko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed moſt horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Poliſh Pruſſia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The reſiſtance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-aſſemble; and their king, John Caſimir, who had fled into Sileſia, was joined by the Tartars as well as the Poles: ſo that the Swedes, who were diſperſed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the ſame time, diſowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and Engliſh protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the ſovereignty of Ducal Pruſſia, which had ſubmitted to Charles. Thus the latter loſt Poland, of which he had made an almoſt complete conqueſt. The treaty of Oliva

was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Pruſſia was reſtored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretenſions to Livonia, and to cede Smolenſko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Ruſſians.

During theſe tranſactions, the Poliſh nobility grew diſſatisfied with the conceſſions their king had made to the Coſſacs, many of whom had thrown off the Poliſh yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and ſome, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Caſimir, who very poſſibly had no ſuch intentions, and was fond of retirement and ſtudy, finding that cabals and factions increaſed every day, and that he himſelf might fall a ſacrifice to the public diſcontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germain in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compoſitions, which are far from being deſpicable.

The moſt remote deſcendants of the ancient kings ending in John Caſimir, many foreign candidates preſented themſelves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles choſe for their king a private gentleman, of little intereſt, and leſs capacity, one Michael Wieſnowiſki, becauſe he was deſcended from a Piaſt. His reign was diſgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of Coſſacs had put themſelves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then thought impregnable. The greateſt part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the Sultan. Notwithſtanding thoſe diſgraceful events, the credit of the Poliſh arms was in ſome meaſure maintained by John Sobieſki, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks ſeveral defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieſki was choſen king; and in 1676 he was ſo ſucceſsful againſt the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had impoſed upon Poland; but they kept poſſeſſion of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieſki, though he had not been well treated by the Houſe of Auſtria, was ſo public-ſpirited as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raiſe the ſiege of Vienna, and making a terrible ſlaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious ſervices, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieſki returning to Poland, continued the war againſt the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the ſenate, who ſuſpected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great diſtractions upon Sobieſki's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties ſeemed inclined to exclude the Sobieſki family. In the mean time, Poland was inſulted by the Tartars, and the crown in a manner put up to ſale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the moſt liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almoſt ſure, he was diſappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger ſon, prince Alexander Sobieſki, for which ſhe was driven from Warſaw to Dantzic. Suddenly Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, ſtarted up as a candidate, and after a ſham election, being proclaimed by the biſhop of Cujavia, he took poſſeſſion of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The prince of Conti made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to re-eſtabliſh his intereſt, and pretended that he had been actually choſen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe ſeemed to acquieſce in the election of Auguſtus. The manner in which

he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, (who procured the advancement of Staniſlaus), and afterwards reſtored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the hiſtory of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712 that Auguſtus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and diſagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Staniſlaus, and were perpetually forming conſpiracies and plots againſt Auguſtus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural ſon, prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was choſen duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was not able to maintain him in that dignity againſt the power of Ruſſia and the jealouſy of the Poles. Auguſtus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to inſure the ſucceſſion of Poland to his ſon Auguſtus II. (or, as he is called by ſome, III.) This occaſioned a war, in which the French king maintained the intereſt of his father-in-law, Staniſlaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a conſiderable party, of which the prince-primate was the head. But Auguſtus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Ruſſians, compelled his rival to retreat to Dantzic, whence he eſcaped with great difficulty into France. In the hiſtory of Germany, the war between Auguſtus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Ruſſia and Auſtria, and Frederic II. king of Pruſſia, has been already noticed. It is ſufficient to ſay, that though Auguſtus was a mild and moderate prince, and did every thing to ſatisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained from them was merely ſhelter, when the king of Pruſſia drove him from his capital and electorate. Auguſtus died at Dreſden, in 1763, upon which count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki was choſen king, by the name of Staniſlaus Auguſtus; though it is ſaid that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empreſs of Ruſſia. He was a man of abilities and addreſs; but, from various concurring cauſes, he had the unhappineſs to ſee Poland, during his reign, a ſcene of deſolation and calamity. In 1766, two Poliſh gentlemen preſented a petition to the king, in the name of all the proteſtant nobility, and in behalf alſo of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be re-inſtated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the ſame footing in every reſpect as the Roman-catholic ſubjects of the kingdom. "The difference of ſentiments upon ſome points of religion among Chriſtians," ſaid they, in their petition, "ought not to enter into any conſideration with regard to the employments of the ſtate. The different ſects of Chriſtians, although they differ in opinion among themſelves with reſpect to ſome points of doctrine, agree all in one point, that of being faithful to their ſovereign, and obedient to his orders: all the Chriſtian courts are convinced of this truth; and therefore, having always this principle in view, and without having any regard to the religion they profeſs, Chriſtian princes ought only to ſeek after thoſe whoſe merit and talents make them capable of ſerving their country properly." The king gave no anſwer to the petition of the diſſidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the miniſters of the courts of Ruſſia, London, Berlin, and Copenhagen, ſupported their pretenſions. The diet appeared to receive the complaints of the diſſidents with great moderation, as to the free exerciſe of their worſhip, which gave ſome flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Pruſſia appear to have prevented this: for, though he openly profeſſed to be a zealous defender of the cauſe of the diſſidents, it was manifeſt, from the event, that

his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Ruſſians in the affairs of Poland alſo gave great diſguſt to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in diſtinct provinces; the popiſh clergy were active in oppoſing the cauſe of the diſſidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the moſt cruel and complicated of all wars, partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confuſion, devaſtation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almoſt deſtroyed; many of the principal popiſh families retired into foreign ſtates with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Ruſſian troops, which acted as guards to the king at Warſaw, that city had likewiſe exhibited a ſcene of plunder and maſſacre. To theſe complicated evils were added, in the year 1770, that moſt dreadful ſcourge, the peſtilence, which ſpread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; and in theſe provinces, it is ſaid, ſwept off 250,000 people. Meanwhile ſome of the Poliſh confederates interceded with the Turks to aſſiſt them againſt their powerful oppreſſors; and a war enſued between the Ruſſians and the Turks on account of Poland. The conduct of the grand ſignior, and of the Ottoman Porte, towards the diſtreſſed Poles, was juſt and honourable, and the very reverſe of that of their Chriſtian, catholic, and apoſtolic neighbours*.

On September 3, 1771, an attempt was made by Koziniſki, an officer among the Poliſh confederates, and ſeveral others, to aſſaſſinate the king of Poland, in the ſtreets of Warſaw. His majeſty received two wounds on the head, one from a ball, and the other from a ſabre; notwithſtanding which, he had the good fortune to eſcape with life, by Koziniſki's relenting; for which his life was ſaved, and he was ſuffered to retire to the papal territories, with an annual penſion from the king.

The following year, 1772, it appeared that the king of Pruſſia, the emperor and empreſs-queen, and empreſs of Ruſſia, had entered into an alliance to divide and diſmember the kingdom of Poland: though Pruſſia was formerly in a ſtate of vaſſalage to Poland, and the title of king of Pruſſia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Ruſſia alſo, in

* In 1764, the empreſs of Ruſſia tranſmitted to the court of Warſaw an act of renunciation, ſigned with her own hand, and ſealed with the ſeal of the empire; in which ſhe declares, "That ſhe did by no means arrogate either to herſelf, her heirs, and ſucceſſors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the diſtricts or territories which are actually in poſſeſſion, or ſubject to the authority, of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her ſaid majeſty would guarantee to the ſaid kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania all the immunities, lands, territories, and diſtricts, which the ſaid kingdom and duchy ought by right to poſſeſs, or did now actually poſſeſs; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, againſt the attempts of all and every one who ſhould, at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to diſpoſſeſs them of the ſame."—In the ſame year did the king of Pruſſia ſign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "That he had no claims, formed no pretenſions on Poland, or any part thereof: that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the ſame inſtrument he guarantees, in the moſt ſolemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland againſt every power whatever.—The empreſs-queen of Hungary, ſo late as the month of January, 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which ſhe gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, "That her friendſhip for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motions of her troops ought not to alarm him; that ſhe had never entertained a thought of ſeizing any part of his dominions, nor would even ſuffer any other power to do it." From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a ſtate, means to annihilate thoſe liberties, ſeize upon thoſe rights, and appropriate thoſe revenues to their own uſe.—Such is the faith of princes!

the beginning of the 17th century, ſaw its capital and throne poſſeſſed by the Poles; while Auſtria, in 1683, was indebted to a king of Poland for the preſervation of its metropolis, and almoſt for its very exiſtence. Theſe three allied powers, acting in concert, ſet up their formal pretenſions to the reſpective diſtricts which they had allotted for and guaranteed to each other;—Poliſh or Weſtern Pruſſia, and ſome diſtricts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Pruſſia; almoſt all the ſouth-eaſt parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich ſalt-works of the crown, for the empreſs queen of Hungary and Bohemia*; and a large diſtrict of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empreſs of Ruſſia†. But though each of theſe powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them reſpectively, and publiſhed manifeſtoes in juſtification of the meaſures which they had taken, yet as they were conſcious that the fallacies by which they ſupported their pretenſions were too groſs to impoſe upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not conſent unanimouſly to ſign a treaty for the ceding of thoſe provinces to them reſpectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered ſtate. In this extremity of diſtreſs, ſeveral of the Poliſh nobility proteſted againſt this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign ſtates, chooſing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiſcated, than to be inſtruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king, under the threatening of depoſition and impriſonment, was prevailed upon to ſign this act, and his example was followed by many of his ſubjects.

The king of Pruſſia's conduct in Poland was the moſt tyrannical that can be conceived. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off from that province and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the ſame year, he publiſhed an edict, commanding every perſon, under the ſevereſt penalties, and even corporeal puniſhment, to take in payment, for forage, proviſions, corn, horſes, &c. the money offered by his troops and commiſſaries. This money was either ſilver, bearing the impreſſion of Poland, and exactly worth one third of its nominal value, or ducats ſtruck in imitation of Dutch ducats, ſeventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this baſe money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to ſupply his army for two whole years, but to ſtock magazines in the country itſelf, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchaſe corn for their daily ſubſiſtence, at an advanced price, and with good money, his commiſſaries refuſing to take the ſame coin they had paid. At the loweſt calculation, he gained, by this *honeſt* manœuvre, ſeven millions of dollars. Having ſtripped the country of money and proviſions, his next attempt was to thin it ſtill more of its in-

* The diſtrict claimed by Auſtria was "all that tract of land lying on the right ſide of the Viſtula, from Sileſia above Sandomir, to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoiſe, and Rubieſſow, to the Bog: from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Ruſſia to Zabras, on the border of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a ſtraight line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrytz, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries ſeparating Podolia and Moldavia." This country is now incorporated with Auſtria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria.

† The Ruſſian claims comprife Poliſh Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Polotſk to the eaſt of the Duna—the palatinates of Vitepſk, Miciſlaw, and the portions of the palatinate of Minſk. This tract of land (Poliſh Livonia excepted) is ſituated in White Ruſſia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the two governments of Polotſk and Mohilef.

habitants. To people his own dominions at the expenſe of Poland had been his great aim: for this purpoſe, he deviſed a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furniſh a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give, as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were ſo heavy, and exceeded at laſt their abilities ſo much, that the prieſts abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. Theſe exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and poſſeſſion taken of the provinces uſurped. From theſe proceedings, it would appear that his Pruſſian majeſty knew of no rights but his own; no pretenſions but thoſe of the Houſe of Brandenburg; no other rule of juſtice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent diſmemberment and partition of Poland has juſtly been conſidered as the firſt great breach in the modern political ſyſtem of Europe. The ſurpriſe of a town, the invaſion of an inſignificant province, or the election of a prince who had neither abilities to be feared nor virtues to be loved, would ſome years ago have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the deſtruction of a great kingdom, with the conſequent diſarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the moſt aſtoniſhing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonſtrated againſt the uſurpations; but that was all. Poland was forced to ſubmit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the ſenate there was a majority of SIX, but in the lower houſe, or aſſembly of nuncios, there was but one in favour of the meaſure, fifty-four againſt fifty-three. This is a very alarming circumſtance, and ſhows that a moſt important though not happy change has taken place in that general ſyſtem of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for ſome ages an object of unremitting attention with moſt of the ſtates of Europe. Our anceſtors might perhaps, on ſome occaſions, diſcover rather more anxiety about preſerving the balance of power in Europe than was neceſſary: but it has been well remarked, that the idea of conſidering Europe as a vaſt commonwealth, of the ſeveral parts being diſtinct and ſeparate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping them independent, though unequal in power, and of preventing any one, by any means, from becoming too powerful for the reſt, was great and liberal, and, though the reſult to barbariſm, was founded upon the moſt enlarged principles of the wiſeſt policy. It appears to be owing to this ſyſtem, that this ſmall part of the weſtern world has acquired ſo aſtoniſhing a ſuperiority over the reſt of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a ſimilar ſyſtem of policy, though formed upon a ſmaller ſcale. Both her fortune and glory expired with that ſyſtem.

The revolution which happened in this country on the third of May, 1791, deſervedly engaged much of the public attention. The evils of elective monarchy were indeed the chief cauſe that Poland had almoſt ceaſed to be conſidered as a nation. The dynaſty of future kings of Poland was to commence in Frederic Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, with the right of inheritance to his male deſcendants: in caſe the preſent elector ſhould have no male iſſue, a huſband choſen by him for his daughter, with the conſent of the Poliſh repreſentatives, ſhall begin the dynaſty. But after this boaſted change, Poland would only have ad-

vanced to that degree of civiliſation which other European countries enjoyed in the thirteenth century. Her hundreds of citizens would have been free, her millions of peaſants would have ſtill continued ſlaves; at the utmoſt, not above five hundred thouſand out of fifteen millions would have been free.

After a ſhort and unequal ſtruggle with Ruſſia, this unhappy country was forced to abandon the new conſtitution. The manifeſto of the Ruſſian empreſs, replete with ſentiments diſgraceful to humanity, was followed by ſome ſkirmiſhes: but it is ſaid that a letter, written with her own hand to the Poliſh king, in which ſhe declared her reſolution to double or triple her troops, rather than abandon her pretenſions, induced that benignant monarch to prevent the farther effuſion of blood.

On the 6th of January, 1793, the king of Pruſſia iſſued a declaration reſpecting the march of his troops into Poland, in which he mentions the *friendly* interference of her imperial majeſty, the empreſs of Ruſſia, in the affairs of Poland. In the ſame ſtrain his majeſty adds, that he had entertained *hopes* that the troubles in that country would have ſubſided without his own interference, eſpecially as he was ſo deeply occupied in another quarter. He *laments* that he has been diſappointed, and that the propagation of French democracy, by means of clubs and jacobin emiſſaries, eſpecially in Great Poland, had already riſen to ſuch a height as to require his moſt ſerious attention: his majeſty, however, obſerves, that he has determined to anticipate their deſigns, by ſending a ſufficient body of troops into the territories of the republic, after having concerted proper meaſures with the friendly courts of Peterſburg and Vienna, who were equally intereſted with himſelf in the welfare of the republic.

The proteſt publiſhed at Grodno, in the fitting of the general confederation, the 3d of February, againſt this violent invaſion, ſufficiently evinces the deteſtation which the Poles themſelves entertain of the meaſures of their pretended *friend*. They aſſure his majeſty that a continued correſpondence between the military commanders and the civil magiſtrates had enabled the confederation to declare, that perfect tranquillity prevailed from one end of the kingdom to the other; that they were "aſtoniſhed at the *aſſertions* of his majeſty" in his laſt declaration; and conclude by entreating that his majeſty would revoke the orders which he had given for troops to enter the republic. Notwithſtanding, however, theſe ſolemn aſſurances—notwithſtanding the evidence and the facts which were alledged in ſupport of them, the Pruſſian army advanced, and one of its detachments appeared under the walls of Thorn. The inhabitants refuſing entrance to the troops, the gates were forced, the municipal guard diſlodged from their poſt, and the Pruſſian regiments entered the defenceleſs city, as if it had been a place taken by aſſault. At the ſame time different Poliſh detachments, diſperſed throughout Great Poland, were attacked and driven from their poſts by ſuperior force.

In March, the manifeſto of her imperial majeſty appeared, relative to the partition. Religion was, as uſual, called in to ſanction this atrocious act of rapine and injuſtice, and the empreſs humanely lamented the ſufferings of the people of Poland, among whom it had been, for thirty years, her inceſſant endeavour to maintain *tranquillity*; and her grief was increaſed by conſidering them as deſcended from the ſame race and profeſſing the holy Chriſtian religion, which would be violated by the introduction of ſuch dreadful doctrines as were propagated by ſome unworthy Poles, who adopted the deteſtable and deſtructive plans of the

rebels of France. As an indemnification, therefore, for her loſſes, to provide for the future ſafety of her empire, and the Poliſh dominions, and to prevent all future changes of government, ſhe graciouſly made known her intention to take for ever under the ſceptre of Ruſſia thoſe tracts of land, with their inhabitants, which lie between Druy on the river Dwina, to Neroch and Dubrova, and, following the border of the vaiwodſhip of Vilna, to Stolptſa, to Neſvig, and then to Pinſk: thence paſſing Kreniſh, between Viſkero and Novogreble, near the frontier of Gallicia, to the river Dnieſter, and terminating in the old border of Ruſſia and Poland, at Jegertie. In this partition, the increaſe of the happineſs of the inhabitants was avowed to be the *ſole object* of her imperial majeſty.

The declaration of the Pruſſian monarch, which was dated March 25, echoed many of the ſentiments contained in the Ruſſian manifeſto, and avowed, that, in order to preſerve the republic of Poland from the dreadful effects of its internal diviſions, and to reſcue it from utter ruin, no means remained but to incorporate her frontier provinces into the ſtates of Pruſſia, which, therefore, had determined to take immediate poſſeſſion of the cities of Dantzic and Thorn, and the vaiwodſhips of Poſen, Gneſen, Kaliſh, and Siradia, the city and monaſtery of Czentochowa, the province of Wielun, the vaiwodſhip of Lentſchitz, the province of Cujavia and of Dobrzyn, the vaiwodſhips of Rawa and Plotzk, &c.

On the 2d of April the Pruſſian troops took poſſeſſion of Dantzic; and, about the ſame time, the empreſs of Ruſſia commanded the king of Poland to remove to Grodno, under the eſcort of Ruſſian troops, for the expreſs purpoſe of ſanctioning the alienation and partition of his kingdom.

The means employed to affect the mock ratification of the partition of this unfortunate country were entirely characteriſtic of the baſeneſs of the cauſe. The diet, in the month of September, was aſſailed for three ſucceſſive days with official notes from the Ruſſian ambaſſador and the Pruſſian miniſter, full of threats, preſſing the ſignature of the treaty. The ſtates, however, perſiſted in their refuſal. At laſt M. de Sievers, the Ruſſian ambaſſador, ſent his ultimatum in a note, which ended with the following remarkable expreſſions; "The underwritten muſt beſides inform the ſtates of the republic aſſembled in the confederate diet, that he thought it of abſolute neceſſity, in order to prevent every diſorder, to order *two battalions of grenadiers*, with four pieces of canon, to ſurround the caſtle, to ſecure the tranquillity of their deliberations. The underwritten expects that the ſitting will not terminate, until the demanded ſignature of the treaty is decided." Conformably to this threat, the Ruſſian ſoldiers ſo cloſely ſurrounded the caſtle, that no perſon was ſuffered to go out: ſome of the officers took their ſtation in the ſenate, pretending to guard his majeſty's perſon againſt conſpirators. The king, on the contrary, ſent a delegation to the Ruſſian ambaſſador, declaring that he would not open the ſeſſion in the preſence of the Ruſſian officers. In conſequence, they were ordered to retire, except the general, who declared publicly, that no member ſhould be permitted to quit the ſenate before the conſent to the treaty was given. The debates were long and violent; and it was not until three o'clock the next morning, after three ſucceſſive diviſions, that the diet came to a reſolution, in which they declare, before all Europe, to whom they had frequently appealed, that, "Contrary to the faith of treaties moſt ſacredly obſerved on their part, as well as to that of the treaty recently entered into with his ma-

jeſty, the king of Pruſſia, and at his own deſire, in the year 1790, whereby the independence and the integrity of Poland were guaranteed in the moſt ſolemn manner; that, being deprived of free-will, ſurrounded at the moment of the preſent act by an armed foreign force, and threatened with a further invaſion of the Pruſſian troops, they are forced to commiſſion and authoriſe a deputation appointed to treat with the ſaid king, to ſign the treaty, ſuch as it was planned and amended under the mediation of the Ruſſian ambaſſador."

Depreſſed and deſpairing, the Poliſh nation, ſuppoſing its political exiſtence to depend on a ſeaſonable alliance with a powerful neighbour, put itſelf under the protection of Ruſſia, which, in the treaty of alliance with Poland, had expreſsly ſtipulated that no change or infringement ſhould take place in the form of government to be eſtabliſhed without the conſent of the empreſs or her ſucceſſors: ſo that Ruſſia, without engaging for the perpetuity of the new form, became completely miſtreſs of whatever government ſhould be eſtabliſhed in Poland.

On the 7th of February, 1794, the baron d'Ingelſtrohm, who had ſucceeded the count de Sievers as ambaſſador at Warſaw, demanded a public annulling of the acts of the diets of 1788 and 1791, together with the form of the conſtitution then eſtabliſhed, and the ſurrender of every paper, whether in public records or private cabinets, reſpecting that tranſaction. The court of Ruſſia ſoon afterwards iſſued its mandate for the reduction of the military force to 16,000 men. This was oppoſed by ſeveral regiments, particularly in South Pruſſia, where the inſurgents, headed by the gallant Madaliński, a Poliſh nobleman, and brigadier of the national troops, peremptorily refuſed to diſband. The ſpirit of reſiſtance was widely diffuſed, and the capital aſſumed a military aſpect. In this ſituation fifteen thouſand Ruſſian troops were ſent into Poland, the ambaſſador was inſtructed to deliver to the permanent council an official document repreſenting the danger that threatened the king, and requeſting the commiſſioners of war to diſpatch an army to oppoſe Madaliński; and the permanent council was deſired to take into cuſtody every ſuſpected perſon. Both theſe requiſitions were, however, refuſed; and it was pointedly replied to the latter, that, according to the laws of the republic, no Poliſh nobleman could be arreſted, without being legally convicted.

The imperious conduct of the Ruſſians, during their ſtruggle for power, continued to haraſs the oppreſſed Poles, and to drive them to deſperation. The peaſants were compelled to lodge and board the Ruſſian ſoldiers, and tranſport them from place to place, without receiving the leaſt remuneration, or any other reward than brutality and inſolence. It could not be expected that a gallant and high-ſpirited people would long tamely ſubmit to ſuch inſult and injury. Their patriotic ſpirit, though latent, was not extinguiſhed. It was rouſed into action by inceſſant ſufferings, and by the continued efforts of the intrepid Koſciuſko, who, early in February, appeared at the head of a conſiderable body of Poliſh inſurgents, attacked the Pruſſians who had taken poſſeſſion of their country, forced them to retreat, and purſued them to a conſiderable diſtance. The Ruſſian troops having evacuated Cracow on the 23d of March, Koſciuſko entered that town on the night of the 24th, and next morning ordered the gates to be ſhut, and declared himſelf commander in chief of all the Poliſh forces. He then impoſed an oath of fidelity on all the military in the city, took poſſeſſion of the public treaſure, and proceeded to meaſures of military ſequeſtration. On the day on which he entered Cracow, he iſſued a pro-

clamation, couched in the moſt energetic terms, inviting the nation to ſhake off their diſgraceful fetters, and to unite in forming a new confederation. The proclamation was received with unanimous applauſe; and "Long live Koſciuſko!" reſounded from every quarter. He was conducted to the town-houſe and preſented to the principal nobility, who had aſſembled there to receive him; and by them he was formally inveſted with the title of general. Every article for the ſupport of his army was abundantly ſupplied. On the 26th, a revolutionary tribunal was eſtabliſhed, and every fifth houſe was required to furniſh one man armed and equipped for the defence of the conſtitution againſt the *uſurping powers*. The different corporations then aſſembled under their reſpective banners before the town-houſe, whence the magiſtrates led them in proceſſion to the church of the Holy Virgin, where the conſtitution of the 3d of May, 1791, was publicly read with great ſolemnity, and an oath taken to defend it.

In the mean time Warſaw was in a ſtate of the higheſt fermentation. In that city and its vicinity there were not leſs than fifteen thouſand Ruſſian mercenaries, ſome of whom were quartered, to the amount of a hundred in a body, in ſeveral of the palaces. The moſt vigorous meaſures were adopted by the permanent council; a decree paſſed, declaring the inſurgents rebels, and ſubjecting them to the moſt arbitrary puniſhments; and the police were charged to ſeize every perſon *ſuſpected* of being inimical to the exiſting government, with the promiſe of military aſſiſtance. The unpopularity of his Poliſh majeſty daily increaſed, and a guard of Ruſſians was appointed for his *preſervation*. About this time, the unhappy monarch iſſued a proclamation, exhorting his ſubjects to a peaceable acquieſcence, and urging the danger and deſtruction which attended their reſiſtance.

The Poliſh nobles had no ſooner taken the oaths in the preſence of Koſciuſko, than they departed for their reſpective eſtates, in order to arm and aſſemble their vaſſals. Baron d'Ingelſtrohm, about the ſame time, ſurrounded the diet at Warſaw with a military force, and demanded the ſurrender of the arſenal. This demand was ſpiritedly reſiſted; and notice of it having been ſent to Koſciuſko, he, about the end of March, took the route to Warſaw with his army, and a reinforcement of 4000 peaſants armed with pikes, &c.—On the 4th of April he was met by a detachment of 6000 Ruſſians, with a park of heavy artillery, on their march to reduce Cracow. A fierce encounter enſued. The Poliſh peaſants being driven to deſperation, made a dreadful ſlaughter of the Ruſſian plunderers. General Woronzow was taken priſoner, and above 1000 Ruſſians killed on the ſpot; while the Poles loſt only ſixty men, and took eleven pieces of cannon and all the ammunition. After the battle, Koſciuſko fell back with his army towards Cracow, where he was joined by a very conſiderable body of diſaffected Poliſh troops.

On the 10th of April, baron d'Ingelſtrohm demanded the ſurrender of the arſenal, the diſarming of the military, and that twenty perſons of the firſt conſequence ſhould be arreſted, and, if found guilty, puniſhed with death. This occaſioned a general commotion, in which the citizens, having procured arms from the arſenal, after an inceſſant combat of thirty-ſix hours, drove the Ruſſians out of the city with great ſlaughter. A deputation had been ſent to inform the king of the attempt of the Ruſſians to ſeize the arſenal; when the monarch had replied, "Go, and defend your honour." The ſituation of the king after the conteſt became very critical, and the people were extremely jealous of every movement he made. They compelled him to promiſe repeatedly that

he would not quit Warſaw; and, not ſatisfied with his aſſurances, inſiſted upon placing two municipal officers as a guard upon him; and he was deſired frequently to exhibit himſelf to the people.

Forty thouſand Ruſſians were now put in motion towards Poland from the Ukraine, and ſixteen thouſand from Livonia. About the end of May, the corps of Koſciuſko amounted to nearly 23,000 men; that of general Kochowſki to 18,000; that of Jaffinſki to 6,000; a corps of 12,000 was ſtationed at Wilna, and another at Warſaw, which conſiſted of 8,000. The peaſants were not included in this calculation.

About the end of June, a manifeſto was publiſhed by the emperor, on the occaſion of his troops entering Poland. On the 12th of July, the head-quarters of the king and prince of Pruſſia were only three or four leagues from Warſaw, whence they iſſued a placard, ſtating that the enemy had fled before them in their progreſs. In the mean time, however, Koſciuſko (who had eluded the Pruſſian troops) by a brave attack had defeated the forces which oppoſed him, and had thrown himſelf into Warſaw. On the 31ſt of June, the Pruſſians began to attack the city by a heavy cannonade, and ſeveral hundred bombs were in the courſe of the day thrown into Warſaw; a dreadful fire was kept up on the beſiegers by night and by day, and an incredible number of lives were loſt. The king and the prince-royal are both ſaid to have been in imminent danger at this time. On the 2d of Auguſt his Pruſſian majeſty, whoſe hopes of ſucceſs had probably been a little damped, attempted to open a negotiation with the king of Poland for the ſurrender of the capital, which was rejected. About the middle of this month, accounts were tranſmitted to the Pruſſian camp of inſurrections having ariſen in South Pruſſia (formerly Great Poland, of which his Pruſſian majeſty had taken poſſeſſion the preceding year; and on the night of the 5th of September, the Pruſſian and Ruſſian forces abandoned the ſiege of Warſaw, after a fruitleſs attack of two months, much weakened by the diſeaſes and deſertions which prevailed in their camps, and diſabled from the want of proviſions and ammunition.

In the courſe of the ſame month, the Ruſſian grand army, conſiſting of 20,000 men, arrived in Poland, and on the 18th a ſevere engagement took place near Brzeſc, in which the Poles loſt very conſiderable numbers, and were compelled to retreat acroſs the Bog. On the 10th of October another battle was fought between the Ruſſians under general Ferfen, and the troops under Koſciuſko. The Ruſſians advanced twice to the attack, but were repulſed by the Poles, who, however, unfortunately, not contented with the advantages they had gained, abandoned their favourable poſition on the heights, and preſſed on to the attack in their turn. This movement threw the troops into ſome confuſion; and the Ruſſians forming themſelves anew, the route ſoon became general. The battle, which began at ſeven in the morning, did not end till noon. Koſciuſko flew from rank to rank, and was continually in the hotteſt part of the engagement. At length he fell, and a Coſſack, who did not know him in the peaſant's dreſs which he conſtantly wore, wounded him from behind with a lance. He recovered, and advanced a few ſteps, but was again knocked down by another Coſſack, who was preparing to give him a mortal blow, when his arm was ſtopped by a Ruſſian officer, who is ſaid to have been general Chmozazow, to whoſe wife Koſciuſko had a ſhort time before politely given leave of departure from Warſaw to join her huſband. The unfortunate Koſciuſko implored the officer, if he wiſhed to render him a ſervice, to allow the ſoldier to put an end to his exiſtence; but the latter choſe rather to make

him a priſoner. The Poliſh infantry defended themſelves with a bravery proportioned to that of their general, and fought with a degree of valour almoſt approaching to fury.

The Ruſſians under general Ferſen ſoon afterwards ſummoned Warſaw to ſurrender; and on being refuſed, after the junction of the different corps under Ferſen, Dernfeldt, Dernifow, and Suwarrow, proceeded on the 4th of November to attack the ſuburb of Praga or Prague, ſeparated from Warſaw by the Viſtula, which was defended by more than an hundred pieces of cannon diſpoſed upon thirty-three batteries. The Ruſſians ſucceeded in their aſſault, and the Poliſh generals found themſelves unable to oppoſe with 10,000 ſoldiers, which was the whole of their force, the united attack of 50,000 men. After a ſevere conflict of eight hours, the reſiſtance on the part of the Poles ceaſed; but the maſſacre of the ſanguinary Suwarrow continued for two hours longer; and the pillage laſted till noon on the following day. Five thouſand Poles were computed to have been ſlain in the aſſault; the remainder were either impriſoned or diſperſed. The citizens were compelled to lay down their arms; and their houſes were plundered by the mercileſs Ruſſians, who, after the battle had ceaſed nearly ten hours, about nine o'clock at night, ſet fire to the town, and again began to maſſacre the inhabitants. Nine thouſand perſons, unarmed men, defenceleſs women and harmleſs infants, periſhed either in the flames or by the ſword, and nearly the whole of the ſuburb was reduced to aſhes. In the whole of this ſiege it is computed that not leſs than 30,000 Poles loſt their lives.

The city being thus reduced under the power of the Ruſſians, the king was for a ſhort time reſtored to a kind of mock authority, by the ſupreme council remitting into his hands that which it had exerciſed. On the 9th of November, the Ruſſian general made his triumphal entry into Warſaw, in which the ſtreets were lined with his troops, and the inhabitants, ſhut up in their houſes, obſerved a melancholy ſilence. The chief magiſtrate delivered him the keys of the bridge of the ſuburb, after which he received the compliments of the king, and on the 10th went with much pomp to the caſtle, to pay his reſpects to his majeſty. To complete the whole of this execrable ſcene, the firſt of December was ſet apart for a day of ſolemn thankſgiving, and *Te Deum* was ſung for the triumph of barbarous oppreſſion.

In the mean time Koſciuſko was under ſurgical care at Nozcylack, where the utmoſt attention was paid to his recovery, particularly by madame Chrnozazow. He was afterwards ſent to Peterſburg, under a very powerful military eſcort, and was confined in the fortreſs there, till the death of the late empreſs, when the preſent emperor, who has on ſeveral occaſions ſhown great liberality towards the perſecuted Poles, ſet him at liberty, aſſigned him a penſion, and allowed him his choice, either to return to his own country, or go to America. Koſciuſko preferred the latter, and arrived ſafely in the aſylum which he choſe. On his way thither he paſſed through England, and was received with the warmeſt welcome and congratulation by all the friends of freedom. He has ſince left America, and is at preſent in France.

On the 20th of December, 1794, a courier arrived from the empreſs, demanding the arreſtation of count Ignatius Potocki, and ſeveral of the other patriots, whom ſhe ordered to be ſent to Peterſburg. The ſame meſſenger brought a command from the empreſs to the unhappy monarch of Poland to repair to Grodno, who, in obedience to the ſummons, ſet off from his capital on the 7th of January, 1795.

The unfortunate king was afterwards removed to Peterſburg, where he had a palace and a ſuitable penſion aſſigned him, and where he died February 11, 1798. With him ended the kingdom of Poland.

Staniſlaus Auguſtus (late count Poniatowſki) was born January 17, 1732; elected king of Poland September 7, and crowned November 25, 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, reſided ſome time in London, and was a fellow of the Royal Society.

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# SWITZERLAND.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 260 | between, | 6 and 11 Eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth 100 | | 46 and 48 North latitude. |

Containing 13,000 ſquare miles, with 138 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Alſace and Swabia in Germany, on the North; by the Lake of Conſtance, Tyrol, and Trent, on the Eaſt; by Italy, on the South; and by France, on the Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which ſtand, in point of precedency, as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweitz; 6. Underwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Baſil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhauſen; 13. Appenzel.

The beſt account we have of the dimenſions and principal towns of each canton is as follows:

| SWITZERLAND. COUNTRIES' NAMES. | | Miles in Length | Miles in Breadth. | CHIEF CITIES. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Calviniſts | Berne | 111 | 87 | Berne |
| | Zurich | 34 | 33 | Zurich |
| | Shaffhauſen | 23 | 9 | Schaffhauſen |
| | Baſil | 21 | 18 | BASIL 47-40 N. Lat. 7-40 E. Long. |
| Papiſts | Lucerne | 33 | 35 | Lucerne |
| | Underwalden | 23 | 16 | Stantz |
| | Uri | 48 | 21 | Altorf |
| | Schweitz | 27 | 13 | Schweitz |
| | Fribourg | 24 | 21 | Fribourg |
| | Zug | 18 | 10 | Zug |
| | Soleure | 31 | 24 | Soleure, or Solothurn |
| Calviniſts and Papiſts | Appenzel | 23 | 21 | Appenzel |
| | Glaris | 24 | 18 | Glaris |
| The ſubjects of the Switzers, Calviniſts, and Papiſts | Baden | 26 | 12 | Baden |
| | Bremgarten | | | Bremgarten |
| | Mellingen | | | Mellingen |
| | Rheinthal | 20 | 5 | Rheineck |
| | Thurgau | 18 | 11 | Frowanfeld |
| | Lugano | 52 | 30 | Lugano |
| | Locarno | | | Locarno |
| | Mendris | | | Mondris |
| | Maggia | | | Maggia. |

Plate VI.

# SWITZERLAND,
with its SUBJECTS & ALLIES
from the beſt
AUTHORITIES.

6 Longitude East from London 7 8 9 10

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree.

Common German Miles 15 to a Degree.

| ALLIES of the SWITZERS. Countries' Names. | | Miles in Length | Miles in Breadth | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Calviniſts - - | Griſons - - - | 100 | 62 | Coire |
| Subjects of the Griſons. Calviniſts & Pap. | Chiavenna | 42 | 34 | Chiavenna |
| | Bormio, and | 27 | 19 | Sondrio |
| | Valteline | | | |
| Calviniſts - - | Tockenburg - | 27 | 8 | Liechtenſteg |
| | Geneva - - - | 13 | 11 | Geneva |
| | Neufchatel - | 32 | 20 | Neufchatel |
| Papiſts - - - | Valais - - - | 80 | 50 | Sion |
| | Baſle - - - - | 13 | 16 | Delfperg |
| | St. Gall - - - | 20 | 10 | St. Gall |
| | | | | Muihauſen, in Alſace, is alſo united to them. |

Air, climate, soil, and face of the country. This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps (which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles), the froſts are conſequently ſevere in winter, the hills being covered with ſnow ſometimes all the year long. In ſummer the inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons: on one ſide of thoſe mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The valleys, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the ſummer months in this charming country. It is ſubject to rains and tempeſts; for which reaſon public granaries are every where erected, to ſupply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often deſcends from the mountains in large or ſmall cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world where the advantageous effects of unwearied and perſevering induſtry are more remarkably conſpicuous than in Switzerland. In paſſing over the mountainous parts, the traveller is ſtruck with admiration, to obſerve rocks that were formerly barren now planted with vines, or abounding with rich paſture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the ſides of precipices ſo ſteep, that a horſe could not even mount them without great difficulty. In ſhort, the inhabitants ſeem to have ſurmounted every obſtruction which ſoil, ſituation, and climate, have thrown in their way, and to have ſpread fertility over various ſpots of the country, which nature ſeemed to have conſigned to everlaſting barrenneſs. The feet of the mountains, and ſometimes alſo the very ſummits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and paſture-grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, conſiſting almoſt entirely of barren and inacceſſible rocks, ſome of which are continually covered with ſnow or ice. The valleys between theſe icy and ſnowy mountains appear like ſo many ſmooth frozen lakes, and from them vaſt fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful ſpots beneath. In ſome parts there is a regular gradation from extreme wildneſs to high cultivation; in others the tranſitions are very abrupt, and very ſtriking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and ſtudded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, paſtures which appear ſuſpended in the air, exhibit the moſt delightful landſcape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and ſnow.

GLACIERS.] No ſubject in natural hiſtory is more curious than the origin of theſe glaciers, which are immenſe fields of ice, and uſually reſt on an inclined plane: being puſhed forwards by the preſſure of their own weight, and but weakly ſupported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are interſected by large tranſverſe crevices, and preſent the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantaſtic ſhapes, obſerved at all heights and in all ſituations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe deſcribes the method of travelling over theſe glaciers. "We had each of us a long pole ſpiked with iron; and in order to ſecure us as much as poſſible from ſlipping, the guides faſtened to our ſhoes *crampons*, or ſmall bars of iron, provided with four ſmall ſpikes of the ſame metal. At other times, inſtead of *crampons*, we had large nails in our ſhoes, which more effectually anſwered our purpoſe. The difficulty of croſſing theſe valleys of ice ariſes from the immenſe chaſms. We rolled down large ſtones into ſeveral of them; and the great length of time before they reached the bottom gave us ſome conception of their depth; our guides aſſured us, that in ſome places they are not leſs than five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwiſe convey to you an image of this body of ice broken into irregular ridges and deep chaſms, than by comparing it to a lake inſtantaneouſly frozen in the midſt of a violent ſtorm. In ſpeaking of an unſucceſsful attempt of ſome gentlemen to reach the ſummit of Mont Blanc, he preſents to his readers a moſt horrid image of the danger of theſe chaſms. "As they were returning in great haſte (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party ſlipped, in attempting to leap over a chaſm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, ſpiked with iron, which he ſtruck into the ice; and upon this he hung, dreadfully ſuſpended for a few moments, until he was releaſed by his companions."

MOUNTAINS.] In this mountainous country, where nature is all upon a grand ſcale, Mont Blanc is particularly diſtinguiſhed from other mountains, by having its ſummits and ſides clothed to a conſiderable depth with a mantle of ſnow, almoſt without the intervention of the leaſt rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. According to the calculation of M. de Luc (by whoſe improvement of the barometer elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy before unattainable) the height of this mountain above the level of the ſea is 2,391$\frac{1}{3}$ French toiſes, or 15,304 Engliſh feet; or, according to Sir George Shuckborough, 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet. The peaks of Teneriffe and Ætna have been frequently ſuppoſed to be the higheſt points of the globe: but, from the moſt accurate obſervations, it will be found that Mont Blanc is of much more conſiderable elevation, and that there are no mountains (except thoſe in America, particularly Chimboraço, the higheſt point of the Cordilleras, the elevation of which, according to Condamine, ſurpaſſes 3,000 toiſes, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet) which are equal to the altitude of Mont Blanc.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine (which riſes in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard), the Aar, the Reuſs, the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Rhône. The lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Thun, Lucerné, Zurich, Bienne, and Brientz.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, cryſtal, virgin ſulphur, and ſprings of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces ſheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty

of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chefnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and moft of the cantons abound in timber. Befides game, fifh, and fowl, are alfo found, in fome of the higher and more inacceffible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois, whofe activity in fcouring along the fteep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both of thefe animals is of fo hot a nature, that the inhabitants of fome of thefe mountains, who are fubject to pleurifies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that diforder. The flefh of the chamois is efteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewife found a fpecies of hares, which in fummer are faid perfectly to refemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, fo that they are fcarcely diftinguifhable among the fnow. But this idea has been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two fpecies ever couple together. The white hare feldom quits his rocky refidence. Here are alfo yellow and white foxes, which in winter fometimes come down into the valleys.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } According to the beft accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induftrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general fimplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankneſs, together with an invincible fpirit of freedom, are the moft diftinguifhing characteriftics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A very ftriking proof of the fimplicity and openneſs of manners of this people, and of aftonifhing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who fays, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each fide of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are feveral ranges of fmall fhops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: any paffengers who wifh to become purchafers, enter the fhops, take away the merchandife, and depofit the price, which the owners call for in the evening. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the fame rank of men in moft other countries; a tafte for literature is very prevalent among thofe who are in better circumftances, and even among many of the loweft rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is extremely conſpicuous in the Swifs gentry. On the firft entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but obferve the air of content and fatisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanlineſs of the houſes, and of the people, is peculiarly ſtriking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dreſs, ſome ſtrong outlines may be traced, which diſtinguiſh this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppreſſions of deſpotic government. Even the Swiſs cottages convey the livelieſt image of cleanlineſs, eaſe, and ſimplicity, and cannot but ſtrongly impreſs upon the obſerver a moſt pleaſing conviction of the peaſant's happineſs. In ſome of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, conſiſting generally of a field or two of fine paſture ground, and frequently ſkirted with trees, and well ſupplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in moſt parts of Switzerland; and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occaſions. Silk, lace, and ſeveral other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in ſome of the cantons: and even the head-dreſſes of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are alſo ſtrictly prohibited: and in

other games, the party who loſes above ſix florins, which is about nine ſhillings of our money, incurs a conſiderable fine. Their diverſions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not waſted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leiſure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their underſtandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exerciſes, ſuch as running, wreſtling, throwing the hammer, and ſhooting, both with the croſs-bow and the muſket.

GOITRES AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in one part of this country, particularly in the republic of Vallais, are very much ſubject to *goîtres*, or large excreſcences of fleſh that grow from the throat, and often increaſe to a moſt enormous ſize; but what is more extraordinary, idiotiſm alſo remarkably abounds among them. "I ſaw," ſays Mr. Coxe, "many inſtances of both kinds; as I paſſed through Sion, ſome idiots were baſking in the ſun, with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the moſt affecting ſpectacle of intellectual imbecillity that can poſſibly be conceived." The cauſes which produce a frequency of theſe phænomena in this country form a very curious queſtion.

The notion that ſnow-water occaſions theſe excreſcences is totally void of foundation. For, on that ſuppoſition, why are the natives of thoſe places that lie moſt contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what deſcends from theſe immenſe reſervoirs of ice and ſnow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of thoſe countries in which there is no ſnow, afflicted with it? For theſe guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the iſland of Sumatra, and at Patna, and Purnea in the Eaſt Indies, where ſnow is unknown.

The ſprings that ſupply drink to the natives are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *tuf*, nearly ſimilar to the incruſtations of Matlock in Derbyſhire, ſo minutely diſſolved as not in the leaſt to affect the tranſparency of the water. It is not improbable that the impalpable particles of this ſubſtance, thus diſſolved, ſhould introduce themſelves into the glands of the throat, and produce goîtres, for the following reaſons: becauſe *tuf*, or this calcareous depoſition, abounds in all thoſe diſtricts where goîtres are common. There are goîtrous perſons and much *tuf* in Derbyſhire, in various parts of the Vallais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Friburg, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in ſeveral places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dreſden, in the valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the ſtrongeſt proof in favour of this opinion, ſays our author, is derived from the following facts. A ſurgeon whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me, that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuf ſtone* from ſeveral goîtres; and that from one in particular, which ſuppurated, he had taken ſeveral flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He added, that the ſame ſubſtance is found in the ſtomach of cows, and in the goîtrous tumours to which even the dogs of the country are ſubject. He had diminiſhed and cured the goîtres of many young perſons by emollient liquors, and external applications; and prevented them in future, by removing his patients from the place where the ſprings are impregnated with *tuf*; and if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the uſe of water which was not purified.

Children are occaſionally born with guttural ſwellings, but this may ariſe from the aliment of the mother. It is to be preſumed that a people accuſtomed to theſe excreſcences will not be ſhocked at their de-

formity; but it does not appear, as ſome writers aſſert, that they conſider them as beauties. To judge from the accounts of many travellers, it might be ſuppoſed that the natives, without exception, were either idiots or goîtrous; whereas, in fact, the Vallaiſans, in general, are a robuſt race: and all that with truth can be affirmed is, that goîtrous perſons and idiots are more abundant in ſome diſtricts of the Vallais than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been aſſerted that the people very much reſpect theſe idiots, and even conſider them as *bleſſings from heaven*. The common people, it is certain, eſteem them ſo, for they call them "*ſouls of God without ſin*;" and many parents prefer theſe idiot children to thoſe whoſe underſtandings are perfect, becauſe, as they are incapable of intentional criminality, they conſider them as certain of happineſs in a future ſtate. Nor is this opinion entirely without its good effect, as it diſpoſes the parents to pay greater attention to ſuch helpleſs beings. Theſe idiots are ſuffered to marry, as well among themſelves as with others*.

Religion.] Though all the Swiſs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Thoſe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which ſeem now to have ſubſided. Zuinghus was the apoſtle of proteſtantiſm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few ſpeculative points; ſo that Calvinſm may be ſaid to be the religion of the proteſtant Swiſſes. But this muſt be underſtood chiefly with reſpect to the mode of the church government; for in ſome doctrinal points they are far from being univerſally Calviniſtical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the intereſts of civil liberty, their ſentiments on the ſubject of religious toleration are in general much leſs liberal.

Language.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moſt common is German. The Swiſſes who border upon France ſpeak a baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

Learning and learned men.] Calvin, whoſe name is ſo well known in all proteſtant countries, inſtituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high eſteem by the moſt learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rouſſeau too, whoſe works the preſent age has received with ſo much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rouſſeau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a proſe-writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin de Village*, in particular, is much eſteemed. M. Bonnet, and Meſſ. de Sauſſure and de Luc, alſo deſerve to be mentioned with applauſe. Haller, a native of Berne, deſerves the higheſt eulogy, as a poet, a phyſiologiſt, and a philoſopher. Lavater, ſo celebrated for his eſſays on phyſiognomy, and ſome other works, is likewiſe of this country.

Universities.] The univerſity of Baſil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious phyſic-garden, which contains the choiceſt exotics; and adjoining to the library, which poſſeſſes ſome valuable manuſcripts, is a muſeum well furniſhed with natural and artificial cu-

* Coxe's Travels through Switzerland, vol. i. p. 385, &c.

rioſities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Eraſmus and Amerbach, which alſo belong to this univerſity, there are no leſs than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, repreſenting a dead Chriſt, a thouſand ducats have been offered. The other univerſities, which indeed are commonly only ſtyled colleges, are thoſe of Berne, Lauſanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Every diſtrict of a canton in this mountainous country preſents the traveller with a natural curioſity: ſometimes in the ſhape of wild but beautiful proſpects, interſperſed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, eſpecially one, two leagues from Friburg. This was formed by the hands of a ſingle hermit, who laboured on it for twenty-five years, and was living in 1707. It is the greateſt curioſity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock.

At Schaffhauſen was a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, juſtly admired for the ſingularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already deſtroyed ſeveral ſtone bridges of the ſtrongeſt conſtruction, when a carpenter of Appenzel offered to throw a wooden bridge of a ſingle arch acroſs the river, which is near 400 feet wide. The magiſtrates, however, required that it ſhould conſiſt of two arches, and that he ſhould, for that purpoſe, employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly the architect was obliged to obey; but he contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge was ſupported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally as ſafe if formed ſolely of one arch. The ſides and top were covered, and the road, which was almoſt level, was not carried as uſual over the top of the arch, but, if the expreſſion may be allowed, let into the middle of it, and therefore ſuſpended. A man of the ſlighteſt weight felt it tremble under him; though waggons heavily laden might paſs over without danger. Conſidering the boldneſs of the plan and conſtruction, it muſt appear extraordinary that the architect was only, as was ſaid before, a carpenter, without the leaſt tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematics, and not verſed in the theory of mechanics. His name was Ulric Grubenman. The bridge was finiſhed in leſs than three years, and coſt about 8000l. ſterling. It was burnt by the French when they evacuated Schaffhauſen, after being defeated by the Auſtrians, April 13th, 1799.

At the famous paſs of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a ſolid rock near fifty feet thick, the height of the arch twenty-ſix, and its breadth twenty-five. The marcaſites, falſe diamonds, and other ſtones found in thoſe mountains, are juſtly ranked among the natural curioſities of the country. The ruins of Cæſar's wall, which extended eighteen miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Leman, are ſtill diſcernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been diſcovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boaſts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of Jeſuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuſcripts, antiques, and curioſities of all kinds. At Lucerne (ſays Mr. Coxe) is to be ſeen a topographical repreſentation of the moſt mountainous parts of Switzerland, by general Pfiffer, a native of this town, and an officer in the French ſervice. It is a model in relief, and well deſerves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finiſhed

in 1776, compriſed about ſixty ſquare leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden*. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The compoſition is principally a maſtic of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is ſo hard as to be trod upon without receiving the leaſt damage. The whole is painted with different colours, repreſenting the objects as they appear in nature. It is worthy of particular obſervation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees, are diſtinguiſhed, but alſo that the ſtrata of the ſeveral rocks are marked, each being ſhaped upon the ſpot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous ſtone, or ſuch other natural ſubſtances as compoſe the original mountains. The plan is indeed ſo minutely exact, that it compriſes not only all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and foreſts, but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and even every path, is diſtinctly and accurately repreſented. The general takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to M. de Sauſſure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the moſt mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a ſublime picture of immenſe alps piled one upon another; as if the ſtory of the Titans were realiſed, and they had ſucceeded (at leaſt in one ſpot of the globe) in heaping Oſſa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Oſſa. From the account of this officer, it appears, that there are continued chains of mountains of the ſame elevation, riſing in progreſſion to the higheſt range, and from thence gradually deſcending in the ſame proportion to Italy. Near Roſiniere is a famous ſpring, which riſes in the midſt of a natural baſon of twelve ſquare feet; the force that acts upon it muſt be prodigious; after a great ſhower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its ſurface. Its temperature never varies, its ſurface is clear as cryſtal, and its depth unfathomable,—probably the end of ſome ſubterraneous lake, that has here found an iſſue for its waters.

Cities.] Of theſe the moſt conſiderable is the city of Berne, ſtanding on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is ſaid, form almoſt a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occaſion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arſenals, bridges, and public edifices. Baſil is accounted by ſome the capital of all Switzerland. It is ſituated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alſace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty ſtreets, and ſix market-places. The town-houſe, which ſtands on the river Birſec, is ſupported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The ſituation of Baſil is pleaſing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is conſidered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far leſs conſiderable than Berne; but in the arſenal is ſhown the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library is a manuſcript of excellent letters, written by the unfortunate lady Jane Grey to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

The city of Geneva, which is an aſſociate of Switzerland, and under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itſelf an independent ſtate and republic, is well built, and well fortified; and contains 24,000

* Count Stolberg, who ſaw this model in 1791, ſays of it: "This model, the ſize of which is vaſt, contains 220 ſquare leagues."

inhabitants, moſt of whom are Calviniſts. It is ſituated upon the afflux of the Rhône from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the profeſſors of its univerſity, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants. By its ſituation it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artiſts; ſo that the proteſtants, eſpecially ſuch as are of a liberal turn, eſteem it a moſt delightful place. But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the uſurpation of the ſenate, has divided the citizens into parties, and the late ſtruggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly ruined all. Many of the citizens have accordingly left the place, and ſought refuge and protection in other countries.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, ribbands, ſilk, and painted cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland; and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithſtanding their ſumptuary laws, to fabricate ſilks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progreſs in thoſe manufactures and in agriculture gives them a proſpect of being able ſoon to make conſiderable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The old conſtitution and government of Switzerland, which, if they are not to be conſidered as entirely ſubverted, are, for the preſent at leaſt, ſuſpended by the incurſions and influence of the French, are very complicated, from the cantons, though belonging to the ſame body, being partly ariſtocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction; but thoſe of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are ariſtocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Thoſe of Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Baſil, though it has the appearance of an ariſtocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even theſe ariſtocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real intereſts of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happineſs not to be expected in deſpotic governments. Each canton has prudently reconciled itſelf to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented, on the baſis of affection, a ſyſtem of mutual defence.

The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions. The firſt are the Swiſſes, properly ſo called. The ſecond are the Griſons, or the ſtates confederated with the Swiſſes, for their common protection. The third are thoſe præfectures, which, though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates. Every canton forms within itſelf a little republic; but when any controverſy ariſes that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, where, each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority. The general diet conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bienne. It is obſerved by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the beſt account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happineſs and content more univerſally prevail among the people. For whether the government be ariſtocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general ſpirit of liberty pervades and actuates the ſeveral conſtitutions; ſo that even the oligarchical ſtates (which, of all others, are uſually the moſt tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the ſubject is ſecurely guarded againſt every kind of violation. A harmony is

maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their ſumptuary laws, and equal diviſion of their fortunes among their children, ſeem to inſure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the ſame extent of region, ſo many independent commonwealths, and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with ſuch wiſdom was the Helvetic union compoſed, and ſo little have the Swiſs, of late years, been actuated by the ſpirit of conqueſt, that, ſince the firm and complete eſtabliſhment of their general confederacy, and till the unprovoked invaſion of their country by the French, they have ſcarcely ever had occaſion to employ their arms againſt a foreign enemy; and have had no hoſtile commotions among themſelves, that were not very ſoon happily terminated.

At preſent Switzerland, under the power and influence of the French, is ſtyled the Helvetic republic, and has its councils and directory. But it appears unneceſſary to enter into a minute detail of this conſtitution, as, even though the old Helvetic confederacy and forms of government ſhould not be reſtored, it will probably undergo great alterations in conſequence of the late revolution in France.

Revenues and taxes.] The variety of cantons that conſtitute the Swiſs confederacy renders it difficult to give a preciſe account of their revenues. Thoſe of the canton of Berne are ſaid to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and thoſe of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expenſes of government, is laid up as a common ſtock; and it has been ſaid, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of 500,000l. ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides their property in other banks.

The revenues ariſe, 1. From the profits of the demeſne land; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Cuſtoms and duties on merchandiſe; 4. The revenues ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and ſome caſual taxes.

Military strength.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons, independent of the militia, conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed and employed are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied, ſo as to benefit the ſtate, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of arms; appear on the ſtated days for ſhooting at the mark; furniſh himſelf with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes and ſtates, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments: in the latter caſe the government permits the enliſting volunteers, though only for ſuch ſtates as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice, or even to be enliſted without the concurrence of the magiſtracy.

History.] The preſent Swiſſes and Griſons, as has been already mentioned, are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, ſubdued by Julius Cæſar. Their mountainous uninviting ſituation formed a better ſecurity for their liberties than their forts or armies; and the ſame is the caſe at preſent. They continued long under little more than a nominal ſubjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor, Albert I. treated them with ſo much rigour, that

they petitioned him againſt the cruelty of their governors. This ſerved only to double the hardſhips of the people; and one of Albert's Auſtrian governors, Greſler, in the wantonneſs of tyranny, ſet up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much reſpect as to himſelf. The famous William Tell being obſerved to paſs frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unleſs he cleft an apple upon his ſon's head, at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Greſler aſking him the meaning of another arrow he ſaw ſtuck in his belt, he bluntly anſwered, that it was intended for his (Greſler's) heart, if he had killed his ſon. Tell was condemned to priſon upon this; but making his eſcape, he watched his opportunity, and ſhot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundation of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that, before this event, the revolt of the Swiſſes from the Auſtrian tyranny had been planned by ſome noble patriots among them. Their meaſures were ſo juſt, and their courſe ſo intrepid, that they ſoon effected a union of ſeveral cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppreſſion, ſought firſt an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent ſucceſſes of their arms againſt Albert, duke of Auſtria, inſenſibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They firſt conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itſelf in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Baſil and Schaffhauſen in 1015; and Appenzel, in 1513, completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent ſtate.

Neufchatel, ſince the year 1707, has been under the dominion of the king of Pruſſia; but the inhabitants are free to ſerve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king has the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor; but the revenue he derives is not above 5000l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country.

Towards the cloſe of the year 1797, Switzerland fell a prey to the rapacity and ambition of France; the emiſſaries and partiſans of which republic had prepared the way for the ſubjugation of the country, by exciting among the people a ſpirit of diſcontent againſt the government, eſpecially in the ariſtocratic republics. That the ariſtocracies of Switzerland were not entirely blameleſs, either in their conduct towards their ſubjects or towards the French, may, perhaps, be true: but if the power of the ſtate, and its very moderate emoluments, were in ſome, or perhaps the majority, of the cantons, monopoliſed by a few families, it muſt ſtill be remembered that their authority was exerciſed with the utmoſt moderation, and that the people were contented and happy. The real views of the French directory, in their attack on Switzerland, however they might endeavour to colour them by pretending that they were invited by the people, and that their ſole aim was to aſſert the cauſe of general liberty, no doubt were to give employment to, and procure pay and plunder for their armies; as alſo to ſecure the command of a country, the poſſeſſion of the important poſts of which, in caſe of a renewal of hoſtilities with the empire, would both ſecure their frontier, and enable them to attack with much greater advantage.

The firſt act of hoſtility on the part of the French was the ſeizing of the Helvetic part of the biſhopric of Baſle, of which they took poſſeſſion under ſome frivolous pretext, and contrary to an expreſs treaty concluded

with the Swiſs in the year 1792. The Helvetic body, knowing they were too weak to reſiſt, ſubmitted patiently to this uſurpation; but ſoon after an inſurrection which took place in the Pays de Vaud, and which, it is not improbable, was produced by the inſtigation of the agents of France, afforded an opportunity for an interference which ſoon terminated in the ſubjection of almoſt the whole of Switzerland to the French yoke, and almoſt the entire overthrow of its form of government. In the month of December, the French directory took upon them to demand of the government of Berne, what they termed the reſtoration of the rights of that people, and the aſſembling the ſtates of the Pays-de-Vaud. This demand they immediately prepared to enforce by arms, and general Meynard was ordered to march with a body of 15,000 men, to ſupport the claims of the diſcontented in that country. The ſupreme council of Berne, fearful of entering into a conteſt with the powerful armies of France, on the 5th of January, 1798, iſſued a proclamation enjoining the citizens of the Pays-de-Vaud to aſſemble in arms, to renew the oath of allegiance, to proceed to reform the abuſes of the government, and to aſſert and re-eſtabliſh all their ancient rights. The malcontents, however, encouraged by the protection of the French army, proceeded to open hoſtilities, and ſeized on the caſtle of Chignon. The government of Berne now had recourſe to arms, and ordered a body of 20,000 troops, under the command of colonel Weiſs, to diſperſe the inſurgents. But the conteſt was ſoon decided by the French army under general Meynard, which immediately advanced while the Swiſs retreated, and, by the beginning of February, had taken poſſeſſion of the whole of the Pays-de-Vaud.

The council of Berne ſtill attempted to negotiate with the French directory; but at the ſame time aſſembled an army of about 20,000 men, the command of which they gave to M. d'Erlach, formerly a field-marſhal in the ſervice of France. This force was joined by the quotas of the other Swiſs cantons, amounting to about 5,500 men. The directory, however, required that the ancient magiſtrates of Berne ſhould be diſmiſſed from their offices, and the conſtitution of the ſtate changed to one more agreeable to democratic principles and the new ſyſtem of liberty and equality. Theſe conditions the government of Berne abſolutely refuſed to ſubmit to, and ſent off orders to break off all further negotiations. The directory alarmed at this appearance of firmneſs and reſiſtance, and fearing they were not ſufficiently prepared, ſent general Brune to take the command of their army in the Pays-de-Vaud, with orders to conclude an armiſtice until he ſhould receive a ſufficient reinforcement. Brune, immediately upon his arrival, announced to the ſenate of Berne, that he came prepared to adjuſt all differences amicably, and requeſted that they would ſend commiſſioners to treat with him. Theſe were accordingly ſent, and an armiſtice concluded for eight days. But on the 2d of March, two days, it is affirmed, before the truce agreed on had expired, the caſtle of Domach, at the northern extremity of the canton of Soleure, was attacked and carried by the French; and, at the ſame time, 13,000 men were marched under the walls of Soleure, which capitulated to general Schawenbourg on the firſt ſummons. Friburg was immediately after reduced by general Brune, and the Swiſs army was forced to retreat.

The French generals immediately advanced towards Berne, where all was confuſion both in the city and in the army, the left diviſion of which had mutinied, deſerted their poſts, and put to death ſome of their officers. The Swiſs army was reduced by deſertion to 14,000 men, excluſive of a

rabble of undiſciplined peaſants, raiſed by the *landsſturm*, or levy of the country *en maſſe*. About 8,000 of the regular forces were ſtationed at Neweneg, and 6,400 held the poſition of Frauenbrun, againſt which general Schawenbourg advanced from Soleure, at the head of 18,000 men. On the morning of the 5th of March both poſts were attacked by the French. The troops of Neweneg repulſed the enemy, but thoſe at Frauenbrun, after a vigorous reſiſtance, were compelled to retreat. M. d'Erlach rallied his men at Uteren, where a ſecond engagement took place, but with no better ſucceſs on the part of the Swiſs. They afterwards, however, made a ſtand at Grauholtz, about a league and a half from Berne; but were thence driven to the gates of the capital, where, after another ſevere battle, they were entirely defeated; and on the evening of the 5th general Brune entered the city of Berne by capitulation. The diviſions of the Swiſs army ſtationed at Neweneg and Guminen retreated, and the ſoldiers of the latter column, in a fit of rage and deſpair, murdered their officers, and among others their unfortunate general D'Erlach.

The defeat of the Berneſe was followed by the ſubmiſſion of nearly the whole of Switzerland; though the democratic republics ſtill made a ſtand, defeated general Schawenbourg, and forced him to retire with the loſs of 3,000 men, after he had conſented to a treaty by which he engaged not to enter the ſmaller cantons.

After this revolution the Swiſs confederacy changed its conſtitution, and even its name. Provincial governments, under the direction of the French generals, were eſtabliſhed in the different diſtricts, and the whole aſſumed the name of the Helvetic republic. Contributions and requiſitions were levied, as uſual, by the French commiſſioners, and the moſt ſhocking enormities perpetrated. During the campaign of 1799, the northern part of Switzerland became the ſeat of war between the Auſtrians and French, and the cantons of Schaffhauſen and Zurich, eſpecially the latter, ſuffered the ſevereſt diſtreſs from the ravages of the contending armies. What will be the future ſtate of Switzerland it is not eaſy to ſay. Should the allies be ſo ſucceſsful as to force the French to evacuate the country, renounce their influence over it, and leave it entirely to itſelf, its ancient conſtitution and government will probably be reſtored; but it muſt no doubt be long before it will be able to regain its former tranquillity and happineſs.

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# SPAIN.

## Situation and Extent.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 700 | between | 10 and 3 Eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth 500 | | 46 and 44 North latitude. |

Containing 150,763 ſquare miles, with ſixty-nine inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.] It is bounded on the Weſt by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean on the Eaſt; by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from France, on the North; and by the ſtrait of the ſea at Gibraltar on the South.

Plate XVII

# SPAIN, and PORTUGAL, from the best AUTHORITIES.

BAY OF BISCAY
FRANCE
Pyrenean Mountains
Canal Royal
GALICIA
ASTURIA
BISCAY
NAVARRE
OLD CASTILE
LEON
CATALONIA
ENTRE MINHO DOURO
TRALOS MONTES
BEIRA
ESTREMADURA
ENTRE TAJO
GUADIANA
ALENTEJO
ALGARVA
ANDALUSIA
NEW CASTILE
MURCIA
VALENCIA
GRANADA
MADRID
MINORCA
MAJORCA
Ebro R.
Douro R.
Tajus R.
Guadiana R.
Guadalquivir R.
Segura R.
Xucar R.
Ebro R.
Llobregat R.
C. Ortegal
C. Finisterre
C. de Palos
C. de Gates
C. St. Martin
Cape St. Vincent
Straits of Gibraltar
Albaran I.
Cabrera I.
Formentera I.
OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
British Statute Miles.
Spanish Miles.
Longitude West & from London
Longitude East from London

It is now divided into fourteen diſtricts, beſides iſlands in the Mediterranean.

| | Countries' Names. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SPAIN | Caſtile, New | 27,840 | 220 | 180 | MADRID. | N. Lat. 49-25. W. Lon. 3-20. |
| | Andaluſia | 16,500 | 272 | 135 | Seville | |
| | Caſtile, Old | 14,400 | 192 | 140 | Burgos | |
| | Arragon | 13,848 | 190 | 105 | Saragoſſa | |
| | Eſtremadura | 12,600 | 150 | 122 | Badajos | |
| | Galicia | 12,000 | 165 | 120 | Compoſtella | |
| | Leon | 11,200 | 167 | 96 | Leon | |
| | Catalonia | 9,000 | 172 | 110 | Barcelona | |
| | Grenada | 8,100 | 200 | 45 | Grenada | |
| | Valencia | 6,800 | 180 | 75 | Valencia | |
| | Biſcay and Guipuſcoa | 4,760 | 140 | 55 | Bilboa | |
| | Aſturia | 4,600 | 124 | 55 | Oviedo | |
| | Murcia | 3,600 | 87 | 65 | Murcia | |
| | Upper Navarre | 3,000 | 92 | 45 | Pampeluna. | |
| In the Mediterranean. | Majorca I. | 1,400 | 58 | 40 | Majorca | |
| | Yvica I. | 625 | 37 | 25 | Yvica | |
| | Minorca I. | 520 | 41 | 20 | Citadella. | |
| | Total | 150,763 | | | | |

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar, ſubject to Great Britain.

Ancient names and divisions.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior: the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largeſt part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the internal changes that it afterwards underwent; but they are leſs accurately known than thoſe of any other European country.

Climate, soil, and water.] Except during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and ſerene, but exceſſively hot in the ſouthern provinces in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run through Spain, are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreſhing breezes that come from them in the ſouthernmoſt parts; though thoſe towards the north and north-eaſt are in the winter very cold.

Such is the moiſture of the hills, bounded on the north by the Bay of Biſcay, and to the ſouth by ſnowy mountains, that the utmoſt care is not ſufficient to preſerve their fruits, their grain, their inſtruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from ruſt. Both the acetous and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progreſs. Beſides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of moſt diſeaſes which infect the principality of Aſturia. Yet, although ſubject to ſuch a variety of endemical diſeaſes, few countries can produce more inſtances of longevity; many live to the age of a hundred, ſome to a hundred and ten, and others much longer. The ſame obſervation may be extended to Galicia, where, in the pariſh of St. Juan de Poyo, A.D. 1724, the curate adminiſtered the ſacrament

to thirteen perſons whoſe ages together made one thouſand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngeſt of theſe being one hundred and ten, and the oldeſt one hundred and twenty-ſeven. But in Villa de Foſnanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1726, aged more than one hundred and forty-ſix years.

The ſoil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn; but the natives have lately found ſome ſcarcity of it, by their diſuſe of tillage, through their indolence; the cauſes of which will be afterwards explained. It produces in many places, almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and moſt delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy; oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, and figs. The wines of Spain, eſpecially ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among foreigners. There are, in the diſtrict of Malaga (according to Mr. Townſhend), fourteen thouſand wine preſſes, chiefly employed in making the rich wine, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called *Mountain*; if red, from the colour, *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of Tent. Good mountain is ſold from thirteen to ſixteen pounds the butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons, according to quality and age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thouſand veſſels enter this port every year, of which about one-tenth are Spaniſh, and the exports in wine, fruit, oil, and fiſh, are computed at about 375,000l. per annum; but it has been conſiderably more.

Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromiſing, becauſe uncultivated, ground; but no country perhaps maintains ſuch a number of inhabitants who neither toil nor work for their food; ſuch are the generous qualities of the ſoil. Even ſugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abundance. A late writer, Uſtariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given us a moſt curious detail of their œconomy, their change of paſture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Thoſe ſheep-walks afford the fineſt of wool, and are a treaſure in themſelves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops: and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which render the taſte of their kids and ſheep ſo exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its ſilk amounts to 200,000l. a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

The medicinal waters of Spain are little known; but many ſalutiferous ſprings are found in Grenada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have ſuch healing qualities, that they are excelled by thoſe of no country in Europe; and they are continually more and more reſorted to, eſpecially at Alhamar, in Grenada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impoſſible to ſpecify theſe, they are ſo numerous; the chief, and the higheſt, are the Pyrénées, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to France; and the road over the paſs that ſeparates Rouſſillon from Catalonia reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the ſtrength of 30 men to ſupport, and nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage, which four horſes now do with eaſe. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrénées, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, ſouth

of Cape Finiſterre. No Engliſhman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and, in former times, one of the Pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying oppoſite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montſerrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the moſt ſingular in the world, for ſituation, ſhape, and compoſition. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte ſerrado, or the ſawed mountain; and is ſo named from its ſingular and extraordinary form; for it is broken and divided, and crowned with an infinite number of ſpiring cones, or pine heads, ſo that it has the appearance, when ſeen at a diſtance, of the work of man; but, upon nearer approach, is ſeen to be evidently the production of nature. It is a ſpot ſo admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whoſe firſt vow is never to forſake it. When the mountain is firſt perceived at a diſtance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, and ſeems like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic ſpires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itſelf a mountain: and the whole compoſes an enormous maſs about 14 miles in circumference. The Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height *. As it is like no other mountain, ſo it ſtands quite unconnected with any, though not far diſtant from ſome that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our Lady of Montſerrat, to which pilgrims reſort from the fartheſt parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the ſick received into the hoſpital. Sometimes, on particular feſtivals, ſeven thouſand perſons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reaſonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for ſaying maſs, water ciſterns, and moſt of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of theſe hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the ſacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar, and, after divine ſervice, dine together. They meet alſo at this hermitage on the days of the ſaints to whom their ſeveral hermitages are dedicated, to ſay maſs, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very ſolitary and recluſe manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abſtinence. They never eat fleſh; nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, leſt their attention ſhould be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. The number of profeſſed monks there is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of ſinging boys 25; beſides phyſician, ſurgeon, and ſervants. Mr. Thickneſſe, who has publiſhed a very particular deſcription of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often ſaw from his habitation the iſlands of Minorca, Majorca, and Yvica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers of Spain are the Douro, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean, below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean

* Mr. Swinburne eſtimates its height at only 3,300 feet; and obſerves, that the arms of the convent are, the Virgin Mary ſitting at the foot of a rock half cut through by a ſaw.

below Liſbon: the Guadiana, which falls into the ſame ocean near Cape Finiſterre; as does the Guadalquiver at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, which falls into the Mediterranean ſea below Tortoſa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, riſes in Sierra Morena, and empties itſelf into the Mediterranean, near Huelva. The name of Tinto has been given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the ſand, and petrifying it in a moſt ſurpriſing manner. If a ſtone happens to fall in, and reſt upon another, they both become, in a year's time, perfectly united and conglutinated.—This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the ſame hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fiſh live in its ſtream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whoſe fleſh nevertheleſs has an excellent flavour. Theſe ſingular properties continue till other rivulets run into it and alter its nature; for when it paſſes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers. It falls into the Mediterranean ſea, ſix leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fiſh, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into ſalt by the heat of the ſun.

Bays.] The chief bays are thoſe of Biſcay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne), Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicant, Altea, Valencia, Roſes, Majorca in that iſland, and the harbour of Port-Mahon in the iſland of Minorca. The Strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

Metals and minerals.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the ſame kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadſtones, jacinths, turquois ſtones, quickſilver, copper, lead, ſulphur, alum, calamine, cryſtal, marbles of ſeveral kinds, porphyry, the fineſt jaſper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethyſts, are found here. The Spaniſh iron, next to that of Damaſcus, furniſhes the beſt arms in the world, and, in former times, brought in a vaſt revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here brought to great perfection.—Spaniſh gun barrels, and ſwords of Toledo, are ſtill highly valued. Among the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and ſilver mines; and ſilver was in ſuch plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Auguſtus Cæſar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took poſſeſſion of Spain, their domeſtic and agricultural utenſils were of that metal. Theſe mines have now diſappeared; but whether by their being exhauſted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot ſay; though the latter cauſe ſeems to be the moſt probable.

Animal productions, by sea and land.] The Spaniſh horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Andaluſia, are thought to be the handſomeſt of any in Europe, and at the ſame time very ſwift and ſerviceable. The king does all he can to monopoliſe the fineſt breeds for his own ſtables and ſervice. Spain furniſhes likewiſe mules and black cattle; and the wild bulls have ſo much ferocity, that the bull-feaſts were the moſt magnificent ſpectacle the court of Spain could exhibit; nor are they yet diſuſed. Wolves are the chief beaſts of prey in Spain, which is well ſtored with all the game and wild-fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already deſcribed. The Spaniſh ſeas afford excellent fiſh of all kinds, eſpecially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection. This country is much infeſted with

locuſts; and Mr. Dillon obſerves, that, in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine aſſailed the fruitful provinces of Andaluſia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have ſometimes appeared in the air in ſuch numbers as to darken the ſky; the clear atmoſphere of Spain has become gloomy, and the fineſt ſummer day in Eſtremadura been rendered more diſmal than the winter of Holland. Their ſenſe of ſmelling is ſo delicate, that they can diſcover a corn field or a garden at a conſiderable diſtance; which they will ravage almoſt in an inſtant. Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and obſervation, might deſtroy the eggs of theſe formidable inſects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } Spain, formerly the moſt populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who will not labour to raiſe food for their families. Another cauſe may be aſſigned, and that is, the vaſt numbers of eccleſiaſtics, of both ſexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have aſſigned ſeveral other cauſes, ſuch as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulſion of that people. The preſent inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed, by Feyjoo, a Spaniſh writer, to amount to 9,250,000; ſo that England is three times as populous as Spain, conſidering its extent.

The perſons of the Spaniards are generally tall, eſpecially the Caſtilians; their hair and complexions ſwarthy, but their countenances are very expreſſive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of muſtachoes, and to introduce among them the French dreſs, inſtead of their black cloaks, their ſhort jerkins, ſtrait breeches, and long Toledo ſwords, which dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the acceſſion of the Houſe of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dreſs, in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government probably will find ſome difficulty in aboliſhing it entirely, as the ſame ſpirit is far from being extinguiſhed. An old Caſtilian, or Spaniard, who ſees none above him, thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature; and the ſame pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendants. This is the true reaſon why many of them are ſo fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of ſeeing a ſuperior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the moſt exalted qualities. It inſpires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous ſentiments; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the moſt embittered wars they have had with England, for near 100 years paſt, we know of no inſtance of their taking advantage (as they might eaſily have done) of confiſcating the Britiſh property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally ſecure in time of war as peace. This is the more ſurpriſing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his miniſters were far from being ſcrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the beſt and moſt credible accounts of the late wars, it appears, that the Spaniards in America gave the moſt humane and noble relief to all Britiſh ſubjects who were in diſtreſs and fell into their hands, not only by ſupplying them with neceſſaries, but money; and treating them in the moſt hoſpitable manner while they remained among them.

Having ſaid thus much, we are carefully to diſtinguiſh the Spaniſh nobility, gentry, and traders, from the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as thoſe of any other country. The kings of Spain, of the Houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom ventured to employ native, Spaniards of great families, as their miniſters. Theſe are generally French or Italians, but moſt commonly the latter, who riſe into power by the moſt infamous arts, and of late times from the moſt abject ſtations.—Hence it is, that the French kings of Spain, ſince their acceſſion to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently ſerved in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greateſt genius among them, embroiled his maſter with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and diſgrace; and Grimaldi, the laſt of their Italian miniſters, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppreſſive and unpopular meaſures.

The common people who live on the coaſts partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an aſſemblage of Jews, French, Ruſſians, Iriſh adventurers, and Engliſh ſmugglers, who, being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards.—In time of war, they follow privateering with great ſucceſs; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Iriſh and Walloon guards in the Spaniſh ſervice. There are about 40,000 gypſies, who, beſides their trade of fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the ſmall towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne. "The Catalans appear to be the moſt active ſtirring ſet of men, the beſt calculated for buſineſs, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians are a more ſullen ſedate race, better adapted to the occupations of huſbandmen, leſs eager to change place, and of a much more timid, ſuſpicious caſt of mind than the former. The Andaluſians ſeem to be the greateſt talkers and rhodomontaders of Spain. The Caſtilians have a manly frankneſs, and leſs appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Caſtilians are, perhaps, the leaſt induſtrious of the whole nation; the Old Caſtilians are laborious, and retain more of the ancient ſimplicity of manners;—both are of a firm determined ſpirit. The Arragoneſe are a mixture of the Caſtilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biſcayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of controul, more reſembling a colony of republicans than a province of an abſolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding painstaking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in ſearch of a hardly-earned ſubſiſtence."

The beauty of the Spaniſh ladies reigns moſtly in their novels and romances; for though it muſt be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their perſons, they are generally ſmall and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ great art in ſupplying the defects of nature.—If we were to hazard a conjecture, we might reaſonably ſuppoſe that thoſe artifices rather diminiſh than increaſe beauty, for ... lly when they are turned of 25. Their indiſcriminate uſe of eſpeci... only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, unpaint, ... ures their complexions and ſhrivels their ſkin. It is at doubtedly diſu... rſally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity. the ſame time unive...

Among the many goo... qualities poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, their ſobriety in eating and drinking ... is remarkable. They frequently breakfaſt, as well as ſup, in bed. Their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate, tea being very ſeldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton,

veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, ſallad, and radiſhes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, ſuch as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, generally ſpeaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are moſtly in the habit of riſing much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furniſh ſpirits ſufficient to reſiſt the effects of the violent heat, through the whole day, without ſome ſuch refreſhment: it is, therefore, the univerſal practice to go to ſleep for ſome hours after dinner, which in thoſe countries is over early; and this time of repoſe, which laſts for two or three hours, is in Spain called *the Sieſta*, and in Portugal *the Seſta*. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that you may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are inſipid and ridiculous bombaſt. The prompter's head ſometimes appears through a trap-door, above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain. Jealouſy, ſince the acceſſion of the Houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. The nightly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes by their lovers are ſtill in uſe. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhowing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has killed in theſe encounters. Great pains are uſed in ſettling the form and weapons of the combat, ſo as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diverſion itſelf, which is attended with circumſtances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Mooriſh original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaiſance, and partly through rivalſhip.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large ſquare for the purpoſe of exhibiting bull-fights; and it is ſaid, that even the pooreſt inhabitants of the ſmalleſt villages will often club together, in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them, riding upon aſſes for want of horſes.

RELIGION.] The Romiſh religion is the only one tolerated in Spain. The inquiſition is a tribunal diſgraceful to human-nature; but though diſuſed, it is not yet abrogated; but the eccleſiaſtics and their officers can carry no ſentence into execution without the royal authority. The Spaniards embrace and practiſe the Roman-catholic religion with all its abſurdities; and in this they have been ſo ſteady, that their king is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of *Moſt Catholic*. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors above the reſt of the catholic world has loſt much of its activity, and ſeems nearly extinguiſhed; and the power of the clergy has been much reduced of late years. A royal edict has alſo been iſſued, to prevent the admiſſion of novices into the different convents, without ſpecial permiſſion; which has a great tendency to reduce the monaſtic orders. It is computed that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 ſecular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

In Catalonia, the confidence of the people in the interceſſion of ſaints

has at all periods been a ſource of conſolation to them, but upon ſome occaſions has betrayed them into miſchief. Every company of artiſans, and every ſhip that ſails, is under the immediate protection of ſome patron. Beſides folio volumes, which teſtify the innumerable miracles performed by our Lady in Montſerrat, every ſubordinate ſhrine is loaded with votive tablets. This has been the parent of preſumption, and among the merchants has brought many families to want. The companies of inſurance, in the laſt war, having each of them its favourite ſaint, ſuch as San Ramon de Penaforte, la Virgen de la Merced, and others, aſſociated in form by the articles of partnerſhip, and named in every policy of inſurance; and having with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs allotted to them their correſpondent dividend, the ſame as to any other partner, they concluded that with ſuch powerful aſſociates it was not poſſible for them to ſuffer loſs. Under this perſuaſion, they ventured, about the year 1779, to inſure the French Weſt Indiamen at fifty per cent. when the Engliſh and Dutch had refuſed to do it at any premium, and indeed when moſt of the ſhips were already in the Engliſh ports. By this fatal ſtroke, all the inſuring companies, except two, were ruined.

Archbishoprics and bishoprics.] In Spain there are eight archbiſhoprics, and forty-ſix biſhoprics. The archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtyled the primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Caſtile, and has a revenue of 100,000l. ſterling per annum; but the Spaniſh court has now many ways of leſſening the revenues of the church, as by penſions, donations to hoſpitals, &c. and premiums to the ſocieties of agriculture. This archbiſhopric pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Eſcurial, beſides other penſions; and it is aſſerted that there is not a biſhopric in Spain but has ſomebody or other quartered upon it; and the ſecond-rate benefices are believed to be in the ſame predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends, are taken the penſions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spaniſh churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a ſameneſs in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treaſure and jewels they contain.

Language.] The Spaniſh language, like the Italian, is derived from the Latin; and it might properly be called a baſtard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former. It is a majeſtic and expreſſive language: and it is remarkable, that foreigners who underſtand it beſt, prize it moſt. It makes but a poor figure even in the beſt tranſlations; and Cervantes ſpeaks almoſt as awkward Engliſh, as Shakſpeare does French. It may, however, be conſidered as a ſtandard tongue, having nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre nueſtro, que eſtas en el cielo, ſanctifcado ſe el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; hagaſe tu voluntad, aſſi en la tierra commo en el cielo; el pan nueſtro de cada dia da nos dezoy; y perdona nos nueſtras deudas aſſi como nos otros perdonamos a nueſtros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal; porque tao es el reyno, y la potencia, y la gloria, per los ſiglos.* Amen.

Learning and learned men.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in ſome meaſure, be owing to the indolence and bigotry of the Spaniards, which prevents them from making that progreſs in the polite arts which they otherwiſe would: but the greateſt impediment to

literature in Spain is the deſpotic nature of its government. Several of the ancient fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes much to Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewiſe produced ſome excellent phyſicians. Such was the gloom of the Auſtrian government that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Madrid in 1549, lifted in a ſtation little ſuperior to that of a common ſoldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he loſt his left hand. His ſatire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much ſervice to his country, by curing them of that ridiculous ſpirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in priſon for debt when he compoſed the firſt part of his hiſtory, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous ſatiriſts

The Viſions of Quevedo, and ſome other of his humorous and ſatirical pieces, having been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the beſt writers of his age, excelling equally in verſe and in proſe. Beſides his merit as a poet, he was well verſed in the oriental languages, and poſſeſſed great erudition. His works are compriſed in three volumes 4to, two of which conſiſt of poetry, and the third of pieces in proſe. As a poet, he excelled both in the ſerious and burleſque ſtyle, and was happy in a turn of humour ſimilar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. The moſt diſtinguiſhed dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakſpeare. He poſſeſſed an imagination aſtoniſhingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works he diſregarded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taſte of the age, than to the rules of criticiſm. His lyric compoſitions, and fugitive pieces, with his proſe eſſays, form a collection of fifty volumes, beſides his dramatic works, which make twenty-ſix volumes more; excluſive of four hundred ſcriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales*. Calderon was alſo a dramatic writer of conſiderable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Toſtatus, a divine, the moſt voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long diſtinguiſhed only by their bulk. Herrera, and ſome other hiſtorians, particularly De Solis, have ſhown great abilities in hiſtory, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen.—Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed. His performances diſplay great ingenuity, very extenſive reading, and uncommon liberality of ſentiment, eſpecially when his ſituation and country are conſidered. Many of his pieces have been tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed in four volumes 8vo. Don Franciſco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a Diſſertation on the Phœnician Language, may be placed in the firſt line of Spaniſh literati. Spain has likewiſe produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amuſing and inſtructive.

Some of the Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts; and not only the cities, but the palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects; Palomino, in an elaborate treatiſe on the art of painting, in two volumes folio, has inſerted the lives of two hundred and thirty three

painters and ſculptors, who flouriſhed in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the catholic, to the concluſion of the reign of Philip IV. Amongſt the moſt eminent Spaniſh painters, were, Velaſques; Murillo, who is commonly called the Spaniſh Vandyke; Ribeira; and Claudio Coello, whoſe ſtyle of painting was very ſimilar to that of Paul Veroneſe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 univerſities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, ſome of which are very magnificent. Moſt of the nobility of Spain ſend their ſons to be educated here. The others are, Seville, Grenada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } The former of theſe conſiſt chiefly of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of 159 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower, near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneouſly, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat ſtones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, ſaid to be one of the moſt curious remains of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is ſupported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven ailes, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the moſt noble and coſtly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built, in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had exiſted 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, ſaid to have been raiſed by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almoſt entire, well proportioned and ſimple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn ſtone. Near Mulviedro (once the faithful Saguntum deſtroyed by Hannibal) are ſome Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact ſemicircle about 82 yards diameter; ſome of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 perſons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Mooriſh antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe is the royal palace of the Alhambra, at Grenada, which is one of the moſt entire as well as the moſt ſtately of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the ſecond Mooriſh king of Grenada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finiſhed, though the ſhell of it remains. It is built of yellow ſtone: the outſide forms a ſquare of one hundred and ninety feet. The inſide is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuſcan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by thirty-two columns, made of as many ſingle pieces of marble. The grand entrance is orna-

mented with columns of jaſper, on the pedeſtals of which are repreſentations of battles, in marble baſſo-relievo. The Alhambra itſelf is a maſs of many houſes and towers, walled round, and built of large ſtones of different dimenſions. Almoſt all the rooms have ſtucco walls and ceilings, ſome carved, ſome painted, and ſome gilt, and covered with various Arabic ſentences. Here are ſeveral baths, the walls, floors, and ceilings of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, ſituated on a more elevated ſtation than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the fineſt proſpects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Grenada, bounded by the ſnowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loſs of Grenada, and ſtill offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain; ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

Among the natural curioſities, the medicinal ſprings, and ſome noiſy lakes, form a principal part; but we muſt not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then riſes again. The royal cabinet of natural hiſtory, at Madrid, was opened to the public, by his majeſty's orders, in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatneſs and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, beſides being ſhown privately to ſtrangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious ſtones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect: but the collection of birds and beaſts at preſent is not large, though it may be expected to improve rapidly, if care be taken to obtain the productions of the Spaniſh American colonies. Here is alſo a curious collection of vaſes, baſons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces, of the fineſt agates, amethyſts, rock cryſtals, &c. mounted in gold and enamel, ſet with cameos, intaglios, &c. in elegant taſte, and of very fine workmanſhip, ſaid to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet alſo contains ſpecimens of Mexican and Peruvian vaſes and utenſils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the ſtone, ſome of which have been brought to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt ſide of the mountain, is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars, of various ſizes, ſome of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of ſtalactites, of a whitiſh colour, compoſed of ſeveral coats or cruſts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increaſe in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the ſummit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be ſeen, but the bay, the ſtraits, the towns of St. Roque and Algeſirus, and the Alpuxara mountains; mount Abyla, on the African ſhore, with its ſnowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coaſt.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only ſurrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are frequently covered with ſnow. It is well paved and lighted, and ſome of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome. The houſes of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for ſhow, con-

veniency being little conſidered: thus you will uſually paſs through two or three large apartments of no uſe, in order to come at a ſmall room at the end where the family ſit. The houſes in general look more like priſons than the habitations of people at their liberty, the windows, beſides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the reſt. Separate families generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is the cheapneſs of its proviſions; but neither tavern, coffee-houſe, nor newſpaper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of the city; it is a ſpacious magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three courts, and commands a very fine proſpect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length, and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience-chamber eſpecially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimſon velvet richly embroidered with gold. It is ornamented alſo with 12 looking glaſſes made at St. Ildefonſo, each ten feet high, and with 12 tables of the fineſt Spaniſh marble. The other royal palaces round it are deſigned for hunting ſeats, or houſes of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good ſtatues. The chief of thoſe palaces are the Buen Retiro (now ſtripped of all its beſt pictures and furniture), Caſa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonſo.

A late traveller has repreſented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is alſo a park many leagues round, cut acroſs, in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of thoſe alleys is formed by two double rows of elm-trees; one double row on the right, and one on the left, which renders the ſhade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit four coaches abreaſt, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a ſtream of water. Between thoſe alleys there are thick groves of ſmaller trees of various kinds; and thouſands of deer and wild-boars wander there at large, beſides numberleſs hares, rabbits, pheaſants, partridges, and ſeveral other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly ſurrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleaſant, adorned with fountains and ſtatues; and it alſo contains a vaſt variety of the moſt beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itſelf, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonſo is built of brick, plaſtered and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two ſtories high, and the garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a ſuite. The gardens are on a ſlope, on the top of which is a great reſervoir of water, called here *El Mar* (the ſea), which ſupplies the fountains; this reſervoir is furniſhed from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far ſurpaſs thoſe at Verſailles. The great entry of the palace is ſomewhat ſimilar to that of Verſailles, and with a large iron paliſade. In the gardens are twenty-ſeven fountains; the baſons are of white marble, and the ſtatues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. Theſe gardens are in the formal French ſtyle, but ornamented with ſixty-one very fine marble ſtatues,

as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vaſes, and twenty leaden vaſes gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique ſtatues, buſts, and baſſo-relievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Eſcurial; and the natives ſay, perhaps with juſtice, that the building of it coſt more than that of any other palace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace forms a ſizable quarto volume; and it is ſaid that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it ſix millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the weſt front, and in the eaſt 366; and the apartments are decorated with an aſtoniſhing variety of paintings, ſculpture, tapeſtry, ornaments of gold and ſilver, marble, jaſper, gems, and other curious ſtones. This building, beſides its palace, contains a church, large, and richly ornamented, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thouſand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuſcripts with which it is enriched. Above the ſhelves are paintings in freſco, by Barthelemi Carducho, the ſubjects of which are taken from ſacred or profane hiſtory, or have relation to the ſciences of which the ſhelves below preſent to us the elements. Thus, the council of Nice is repreſented above the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes, at the ſiege of Syracuſe, indicates thoſe which relate to the mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very ſingular circumſtance in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, which is, that, on viewing the books, he will find them placed the contrary way, ſo that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reaſon for this cuſtom is, that Arius Montanus, a learned Spaniard of the ſixteenth century, whoſe library had ſerved as a foundation for that of the Eſcurial, had all his books placed and inſcribed in that manner, which no doubt appeared to him to be the moſt commodious method of arranging them; that he had introduced his own method into the Eſcurial; and ſince his time, and for the ſake of uniformity, it had been followed with reſpect to the books afterwards added. Here are alſo large apartments for all kinds of artiſts and mechanics; noble walks, with extenſive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and coſtly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000l. The mauſoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is thirty-ſix feet in diameter, incruſted with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full eſtimate of the incredible ſums beſtowed on this palace, and on its furniture, ſtatues, paintings, columns, vaſes, and the like decorations, which are moſt amazingly rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in ſaying, that the fabric itſelf diſcovers a bad taſte upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, becauſe St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on ſuch an utenſil, and multiplying the ſame figure through its principal ornaments upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and ſacerdotal habits, could have been formed only in the brain of a taſteleſs bigot, ſuch as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces) at St. Quentin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king reſides forms the handle of the gridiron. The

building is a long ſquare of 640 feet by 580. The height of the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his ſucceſſors; but its outſide has a gloomy appearance, and the inſide is compoſed of different ſtructures, ſome of which are maſter-pieces of architecture, but forming a diſagreeable whole. It muſt, however, be confeſſed, that the pictures and ſtatues that have found admiſſion here are excellent in their kind, and ſome of them not to be equalled even in Italy itſelf.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spaniſh commerce. It ſtands on an iſland ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, without the Straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts, called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the Engliſh in their wars with Spain, becauſe of the vaſt intereſt our merchants have in the treaſures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The ſtreets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night; the houſes lofty, with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the ſea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral has been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finiſhed. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconſiderable place; the ſtreets are crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conſpicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquiſition and of the biſhop are extenſive and well ſituated. The cathedral was formerly a moſque, divided into ſeventeen aiſles by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the ſilver candleſticks coſt 850l. a-piece. The revenue of the ſee amounts to 3500l. per annum; but as the biſhops cannot deviſe by will, all they die poſſeſſed of eſcheats to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largeſt city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The ſhape is circular, and the walls ſeem of Mooriſh conſtruction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The ſuburb of Triana is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic caſtle, where, in 1481, the inquiſition was firſt eſtabliſhed in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and ſilk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400; and its great office of commerce to Spaniſh America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious ſteeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at the top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This ſteeple is reckoned one of the greateſt curioſities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London; but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York minſter for lightneſs, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The firſt clock made in the kingdom was ſet up in this cathedral, in the year 1400, in the preſence of king Henry III. The proſpect of the country round this city, beheld from the ſteeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, ſaid to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houſes, ſituated on the Mediterranean, facing Minorca, and is ſaid to be the handſomeſt place in Spain; the houſes are lofty and plain, and the ſtreets well lighted and paved. The citadel is ſtrong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the ſiege they ſuſtained, in 1714, againſt a formidable

army, when deſerted both by England and the emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is ſuppoſed to be nearly 150,000, and they ſupply Spain with moſt of the clothing and arms for the troops. A ſingular cuſtom prevails among them; on the 1ſt of November, the eve of All Souls, they run about from houſe to houſe to eat cheſnuts, believing that for every cheſnut they ſwallow, with proper faith and unction, they ſhall deliver a ſoul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almoſt circular city, with lofty walls. The ſtreets are crooked and narrow, and not paved; the houſes ill built and filthy, and moſt of the churches tawdry. Prieſts, nuns, and friars, of every dreſs, ſwarm in this city, whoſe inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbiſhopric is one of the beſt in Spain, to the amount of 40,000l. ſterling a year.

Carthagena is a large city, but has very few good ſtreets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arſenal is a ſpacious ſquare ſouth-weſt of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the ſea. When Mr. Swinburne viſited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spaniſh criminals, and 600 Barbary ſlaves, working at the pumps, to keep the docks dry, &c and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were ſent there deſerved indeed exemplary puniſhment.

Grenada ſtands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double ſummit between two rivers, the Douro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are paſſed away with its old inhabitants; the ſtreets are now filthy, the aqueducts crumbled to duſt, and its trade loſt. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned uſeful; the ſurplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre for bull-feaſts is built of ſtone, and one of the beſt in Spain. The environs of the city are ſtill pleaſing and healthful.

Bilboa is ſituated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the ſea. It contains about eight hundred houſes, with a large ſquare by the water ſide, well ſhaded with pleaſant walks, which extend to the outlets on the banks of the river, where there are great numbers of houſes and gardens, which form a moſt pleaſing proſpect, particularly in ſailing up the river; for, beſides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landſcape, and completes the ſcenery. The houſes are ſolid and lofty, the ſtreets well paved and level, and the water is ſo conveyed into the ſtreets, that they may be waſhed at pleaſure; which renders Bilboa one of the neateſt towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not leſs remarkable for its opulence and extenſive commerce than for the luxuriance of its ſoil, yielding in great abundance the moſt delicious fruits; whilſt its rugged mountains afford thoſe luſcious grapes which give ſuch reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, ſurrounded with a double wall, ſtrengthened by ſtately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorith caſtle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The ſtreets are narrow, and the moſt remarkable building in it is a ſtupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. ſaid to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The biſhop's income is 16,000l. ſterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two valleys, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the ſame number of nunneries. The moſt beautiful part of this city is the great ſquare, built about forty years ago. The houſes are of three ſtories, and all of equal height and exact ſymmetry, with iron balconies, and a ſtone baluſtrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the ſquare, which extends two hundred and ninety-three feet on each ſide. Over ſome of the arches are medallions, with buſts of the king of Spain, and of ſeveral eminent men, in ſtone baſſo-relievo, among which are thoſe of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this ſquare the bull-fights are exhibited, for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the moſt ancient cities in Spain, and during ſeveral centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees ſtripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almoſt entirely deſerted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part ſpent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thouſands that are left, and aſſiſts, in ſome degree, thoſe ſmall manufactures of ſword-blades and ſilk-ſtuffs that are eſtabliſhed in this city. It is now exceedingly ill built, poor, and mean.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Caſtile, but now in obſcurity. The cathedral is one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures, of the Gothic kind, now in Europe. Its form is exactly the ſame as that of York-minſter, and on the eaſt end is an octagon building, exactly like the chapter-houſe at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortreſs of Andaluſia, is at preſent in poſſeſſion of Great Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in the year 711, or 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mons Calpe*. On their arrival, a fortreſs was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Gibel Tarif*, or Mount Tarif, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former by a combined fleet of Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, under the command of Sir George Rooke, in 1704; and this rather through accident than any thing elſe. The prince of Heſſe, with 1800 men, landed on the iſthmus; but an attack on that ſide was found to be impracticable, on account of the ſteepneſs of the rock. The fleet fired 15 000 ſhot, without making any impreſſion on the works: ſo that the fortreſs ſeems to be equally impregnable both to the Britiſh and Spaniards, except by famine. At laſt, a party of ſailors, having got merry with grog, rowed cloſe under the New Mole in their boats; and as they ſaw that the garriſon, which conſiſted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the mole, hoiſted a red jacket as a ſignal of poſſeſſion. This being immediately obſerved from the fleet, more boats and ſailors were ſent out, who, in like manner, having aſcended the works, got poſſeſſion of a battery, and ſoon obliged the town to ſurrender. After many fruitleſs attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the Engliſh, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been ſince made to wreſt

it from England, but without ſucceſs; the laſt war has made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long ſiege againſt the united forces of Spain and France, by land and ſea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garriſon, to the great loſs and diſgrace of the aſſailants; though it muſt be granted, the place is by nature almoſt impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon, of different bores, and chiefly braſs, which were ſunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raiſed, and ſold, to be diſtributed among the garriſon. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the paſſage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant ſeas. But the road is neither ſafe againſt an enemy nor ſtorms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The ſtraits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which ſets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean; and for the ſtemming of it, a briſk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the laſt ſiege was totally deſtroyed by the enemies' bombs, but on account of its fortifications is eſteemed the key of Spain, and is always furniſhed with a garriſon well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is acceſſible on the land ſide only by a narrow paſſage between the rock and the ſea; but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and ſo incloſed by high ſteep hills, as to be almoſt inacceſſible. It has but two gates on that ſide, and as many towards the ſea. Acroſs this iſthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garriſon of Gibraltar from having any intercourſe with the country behind them; notwithſtanding which they carry on a clandeſtine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garriſon is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces ſcarcely any thing, all their proviſions are brought them either from England or from Ceuta, on the oppoſite coaſt of Barbary. Formerly, Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing thoſe abuſes which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magiſtrates.

The chief iſlands belonging to Spain in Europe, are Minorca, Majorca, and Yvica. Minorca, which was taken by the Engliſh, in 1708, under general Stanhope, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, was re-taken by the Spaniards in the laſt war, February 15, 1782, and is now become a Spaniſh iſland again, containing about 27,000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themſelves, make gold and ſilver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. "Hither (ſays Mr. Anderſon, in his Hiſtory of Commerce) other European nations ſend their merchandiſe to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſheltered (or, as our old Engliſh phraſe has it, coloured) under the names of the Spaniſh factors. Thoſe foreign nations have here their agents and correſpondents; and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a conſiderable figure. Cadiz has been ſaid to have the fineſt ſtorehouſes and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treaſures of Spaniſh America. The proper Spaniſh merchandiſes exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on

the foreign merchandiſe ſent thither would yield a great revenue (and conſequently the profits of merchants and their agents would ſink) were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding thoſe duties."

At St Ildefonſo the glaſs manufacture is carried on to a degree of perfection unknown in England. The largeſt mirrors are made in a braſs frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and ſix deep weighing near nine tons. Theſe are deſigned wholly for the royal palaces and for preſents from the king. Yet even for ſuch purpoſes it is ill placed, and proves a devouring monſter in a country where proviſions are dear, fuel ſcarce, and carriage exceedingly expenſive. Here is alſo a royal manufacture of linen employing about 15 looms; by which it is ſaid the king is a conſiderable loſer.

In the city of Valencia there is a very reſpectable ſilk manufacture, in which five thouſand looms, and three hundred ſtocking frames, give employment to upwards of 20,000 of the inhabitants, without enumerating thoſe who exerciſe profeſſions relative to the manufacture, ſuch as perſons who prepare the wood and iron work of ſo great a number of machines, or ſpin, wind, or die the ſilk. At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been ſucceſsfully eſtabliſhed; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, their beſt apartments are floored with theſe, and are remarkable for neatneſs, for coolneſs, and for elegance. They are ſtronger and much more beautiful than thoſe of Holland.

At Carthagena they make great quantities of the *eſparto* ropes and cables, ſome of them ſpun like hemp, and others plaited. Both operations are performed with ſingular rapidity. Theſe cables are excellent, becauſe the float on the ſurface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coaſt. The eſparto ruſh makes good mats for houſes, *alpargates*, or ſhort trowſers and buſkins for peaſants, and latterly it has been ſpun into fine thread for the purpoſe of making cloth. If properly encouraged, there is no doubt that the manufacture may be brought to ſuch perfection, as to make this once uſeleſs ruſh a ſource of abundant wealth to the ſouthern provinces of Spain, for it is the peculiar and natural production of all the high and uncultivated mountains of the ſouth.

As to the hempen cordage which is made in Spain for the uſe of the royal navy, M. de Bourgoanne obſerves that it is better and more durable than that of the principal dock yards and magazines in Europe; becauſe, in combing the hemp, all the towy part we leave in it is taken out, and made uſe of in caulking, whence reſults the double advantage of more ſolid cordage, and the better caulking of veſſels. Another cuſtom in our rope-yards, which the Spaniards have avoided adopting, is the tarring the cordage and keeping it a long time piled up. In this ſtate the tar ferments, and eats the hemp, and the cordage is extremely apt to break after being uſed but a ſhort ſpace of time.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at preſent they are able to do without the aſſiſtance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of Grenada already furniſhes them with the greateſt part of the hemp they uſe; and, in caſe of need, they may have recourſe to Arragon and Navarre. All the ſail cloth and cordage in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spaniſh hemp; the texture of which is even, cloſe, and ſolid.

The moſt important production of this country, and the moſt valuable article of commerce, is barilla, a ſpecies of pot aſh, procured by burning a great variety of plants almoſt peculiar to the kingdoms of Va-

lencia and Murcia, ſuch as *ſoza, algazul, ſuzon, ſayennes, ſalicornia*, with *barilla*. It is uſed for making ſoap, for bleaching, and for glaſs. All the nations in Europe by the combuſtion of various vegetable ſubſtances, make ſome kind of pot-aſh; but the ſuperior excellence of the barilla has hitherto ſecured the preference. The country producing it is about ſixty leagues in length, and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean. The quantity exported annually from Spain (according to the teſtimonies of both Mr. Townſend and M. de Bourgoanne) is about a hundred and fi ty quintals, moſt of which are ſent to France and England, and a ſmall quantity to Genoa and Venice.

Spain is one of the richeſt countries in Europe in ſalt-petre, a moſt important article of commerce. The account of this ſurpriſing manufacture we ſhall abridge from Mr. Townſend. "I obſerved," ſays he, "a large encloſure, with a number of mounts of about twenty feet high, at regular diſtances from each other. Theſe were collected from the rubbiſh of the city of Madrid, and the ſcrapings of the highways. They had remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found them. At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and ſpreading abroad the earth to the thickneſs of about one foot, whilſt others were turning what had been previouſly expoſed to the influence of the ſun and air. The preceding ſummer theſe heaps had been waſhed, and being thus expoſed, would yield the ſame quantity of ſalt again; and, as far as appears, the produce would never fail; but, after having been waſhed, no ſalt-petre can be obtained without a ſubſequent expoſure. Some of this earth they can lixiviate once a year, ſome they have waſhed twenty times in the laſt ſeven years, and ſome they have ſubjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when they may waſh it to advantage, and by their taſte if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper ſtrength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the ſalt-petre."

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly of wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great efforts have been made by the government, to prevent the other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but theſe never can be ſucceſsful, till a ſpirit of induſtry is awakened among the natives, ſo as to enable them to ſupply their American poſſeſſions with their own commodities and merchandiſe. Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themſelves are, the clear profits ſeldom amounting to leſs than twenty per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that thoſe immenſe riches ſhould belong to the Spaniards, rather than any active European nation: but of this ſubject there will be occaſion to ſpeak in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the moſt free, is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is ſo viſible in moſt parts of the country is in a great degree the reſult of its government, in the adminiſtration of which no proper attention is paid to the intereſts and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been queſtioned, whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at leaſt certain, that the Houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The cortes, or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, especially in Caſtile, had greater power and privileges than thoſe of England, are now aboliſhed; but ſome faint remains of their conſtitution are ſtill diſcernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the controul of the king.

The privy council, which is compoſed of a number of noblemen, or grandees, nominated by the king, ſits only to prepare matters, and to digeſt papers for the cabinet council, or junto, which conſiſts of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more named by the king, and in them reſides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cogniſance of military affairs only. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal of the kingdom. The ſeveral courts of the royal audiences are thoſe of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona. Theſe judge primarily in all cauſes within fifteen miles of their reſpective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Beſides theſe there are many ſubordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of buſineſs.

The government of Spaniſh America forms a ſyſtem of itſelf, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magiſtrates, who are in their reſpective diſtricts almoſt abſolute. A council for the Indies is eſtabliſhed in Old Spain, and conſiſts of a governor, four ſecretaries, and twenty-two counſellors, beſides officers. Their deciſion is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally choſen from the viceroys and magiſtrates who have ſerved in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are ſo conſiderable, that they are ſeldom truſted to one perſon for more than three years; and their emoluments are ſufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain, beſides thoſe in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Maſulquiver, on the coaſt of Barbary, in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Aſia.

Revenues.] The revenues ariſing to the king from Old Spain, yearly, amount to 5,000,000l. ſterling, though ſome ſay eight; and they form the ſureſt ſupport of his government. His American income, it is true, is immenſe, but it is generally, in a manner, embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the ſilver mines that are worked, but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in caſe of a war, or public emergency, to ſequeſter into his own hands great part of the American treaſures belonging to his ſubjects, who never complain becauſe they are always punctually repaid with intereſt. The finances of his preſent catholic majeſty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himſelf and his people, than thoſe of any of his predeceſſors.

As to the taxes whence the internal revenues ariſe, they are various, arbitrary, and ſo much ſuited to conveniency, that we cannot fix them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houſes, lands, timber, and proviſions; the clergy and military orders are likewiſe taxed.

Military and marine strength.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 70,000; but in caſe of war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His preſent catholic majeſty has been at great care and expenſe to raiſe a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at pre-

ſent exceeds ſeventy ſhips of the line. All along the coaſt of Spain are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, ſo that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be ſoon alarmed in caſe of an invaſion.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms; all of which, with ſeveral others, were, by name, entered into the royal titles, ſo that they amounted in all to about thirty-two. This abſurd cuſtom is ſtill occaſionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of his Catholic Majeſty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a ſword, without being crowned. Their ſignature never mentions their name, but, I THE KING. Their eldeſt ſon is called prince of Aſturias, and their younger children of both ſexes, are, by way of diſtinction, call *infants* or *infantas*, that is, children.

The armorial bearing of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a ſhield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermoſt on the right hand and the loweſt on the left contain a caſtle, or, with three towers, for Caſtile; and in the uppermoſt on the left, and the loweſt on the right, are three lions, gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for thoſe Spaniſh nobility and gentry who are unmixed with the Mooriſh blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, viſcounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may ſtand covered before the king, and are treated with princely diſtinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbiſhops, ambaſſadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and ſtate, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

The "Order of the *Golden Fleece*," particularly deſcribed before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and ſovereign dukes; but the Spaniſh branch of it has many French and Italian nobility; there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The "Order of *St. James*," or *St. Jago de Compoſtella*, is the richeſt of all orders of Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under a grand-maſter; but the office of both was given, by pope Alexander VI. to the kings of Spain and Portugal as grand-maſters in their reſpective dominions. The order is highly eſteemed in Spain, and only conferred on perſons of noble families. The ſame may be ſaid of the "Order of *Calatrava*," firſt inſtituted by Sanchio, king of Toledo: it took its name from the caſtle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and poſſeſſions, were ſo conſiderable as to excite the jealouſy of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues, and the office of grand-maſter, were annexed, by pope Innocent VIII. The celebrated "Order of *Alcantara*" derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief ſeat of the order, they aſſumed the name of knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aſide the old device of a pear-tree. This order is highly eſteemed, and conferred only on perſons of ancient and illuſtrious families. The "Order of the *Lady of Mercy* is ſaid to have been inſtituted by James I. king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was deſigned for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which were expended large ſums of money.

It was firſt confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it. This order poſſeſſes conſiderable revenues in Spain. The "Order of *Monteſa*" was inſtituted at Valencia, at the cloſe of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their poſſeſſions. Their chief ſeat being the town of Monteſa, the order from thence derived its name, and choſe St. George for their patron. In the year 1771, the late king inſtituted, after his own name, the "Order of *Charles III*" in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is a ſtar of eight points, enamelled white, and ed ed with gold: in the centre of the croſs is the image of the Virgin Mary, veſtments white and blue. On the reverſe the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti et Merito*. None but perſons of noble deſcent can belong to this order.

History of Spain.] Spain was probably firſt peopled by the Celtæ, from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this kingdom among them; but in the year 584, the Goths again became its maſters.

Theſe, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the ſeventh century, had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and, not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, croſſed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in the ſouthern provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Old Spaniſh prince who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania); and he took the title of king of Aſturia about the year 720. His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were ſuperior to all their contemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line retained poſſeſſion of the throne near three hundred years. Learning flouriſhed in Spain, while the reſt of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Mooriſh princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief miniſters proud and inſolent. A ſeries of civil wars enſued, which at laſt overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent ſovereign. Every adventurer was then entitled to the conqueſts he made from the Moors, till Spain at laſt was divided into twelve or thirteen kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon, Alphonſo, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella, the heireſs and afterwards queen of Caſtile, who took Grenada, and expelled out of Spain

the Moors and Jews who would not be converts to the Chriſtian faith, to the number of 170,000 families.

The expulſion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a ſafeguard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and emperor of Germany, ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella, in the year 1516. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence it drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own proteſtant ſubjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He alſo reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At laſt, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a reſolution that filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment, withdrawing himſelf entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude *.

* Charles, of all his vaſt poſſeſſions, reſerved nothing for himſelf but an annual penſion of 100,000 crowns; and choſe, for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a ſmall brook, and ſurrounded by riſing grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave ſtrict orders that the ſtyle of the building which he erected there ſhould be ſuch as ſuited his preſent ſituation, rather than his former dignity. It conſiſted only of ſix rooms; four of them in the form of friars' cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet ſquare, were hung with brown cloth, and furniſhed in the moſt ſimple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one ſide into a garden, of which Charles himſelf had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he propoſed to cultivate with his own hands. After ſpending ſome time in the city of Ghent, in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he ſet out for Zealand, in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his ſon, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an affectionate and laſt farewell of Philip and his attendants, he ſet out, on the 17th of September, 1556, under a convoy of a large fleet of Spaniſh, Flemiſh, and Engliſh ſhips. As ſoon as he landed in Spain, he fell proſtrate on the ground; and conſidering himſelf now as dead to the world, he kiſſed the earth and ſaid, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spaniſh nobility paid their court to him as he paſſed along to the place of his retreat; but they were ſo few in number, and their attendance was ſo negligent, that Charles obſerved it, and felt, for the firſt time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his ſon's ingratitude; who forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain ſome weeks on the road, before he paid him the firſt moiety of that ſmall portion, which was all that he had reſerved of ſo many kingdoms. At laſt the money was paid; and Charles, having diſmiſſed a great number of his domeſtics, whoſe attendance he thought would be ſuperfluous, entered into his humble retreat with twelve domeſtics only. Here he buried in ſolitude and ſilence his grandeur, his ambition, together with all thoſe vaſt projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe, filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being ſubjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete ſatisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any part in the political tranſactions of the princes of Europe, he reſtrained his curioſity even from any inquiry concerning them; and he ſeemed to view the buſy ſcene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference ariſing from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleaſing reflection of having diſengaged himſelf from its cares.

Agreeably to this determination he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the preſence of his principal nobility, to his ſon, Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which dignity they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria into two branches; Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the New World, the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch, whilſt the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they ſtill poſſeſs.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and, through his whole life, a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery. His marriage with queen Mary, of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf, his unſucceſsful addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, his reſentment and unſucceſsful wars with that princeſs, his tyranny and perſecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of thoſe countries.

In Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian, about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors, in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family, of Portugal, aſſerted a prior right. By this acquiſition, Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill holds.

The deſcendents of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that, in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever ſince, Portugal has been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II. who left no iſſue, Philip, duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, in virtue of his predeceſſor's will, by the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the concluſion of the war, by the ſhameful peace of Utrecht, in 1713. And

New amuſements and new objects now occupied his mind; ſometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; ſometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horſe, the only one that he kept, attended by a ſingle ſervant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who reſided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himſelf in ſtudying the principles, and in forming curious works of mechaniſm, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the conſtruction of clocks and watches: and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is ſaid, with a mixture of ſurpriſe and regret, on his own folly, in having beſtowed ſo much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a preciſe uniformity of ſentiment concerning the intricate and myſterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years' retirement, he was ſeized with a fever which carried him off, in the 59th year of his age.

thus Lewis XIV. through a maſterly train of politics (for, in his wars to ſupport his grandſon, as we have already obſerved, he was almoſt ruined) accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria, to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his ſon Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their ſovereign, through the oppreſſion of the imperialiſts.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was diſturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746 and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuſes, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and proſperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without iſſue, through melancholy for the loſs of his wife. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother, Charles III. then king of Naples and the Two Sicilies, ſon to Philip V. by his wife, the princeſs of Parma.

He was ſo warmly attached to the family compact of the houſe of Bourbon, that, two years after his acceſſion, he even hazarded his American dominions to ſupport it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, and thereby rendered herſelf entirely miſtreſs of the navigation of the Spaniſh plate-fleets. Notwithſtanding the ſucceſs of the Engliſh, their miniſtry thought proper, haſtily, to conclude a peace, in conſequence of which Havannah was reſtored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted againſt Algiers by the Spaniſh miniſtry, which had a moſt unſucceſsful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eaſtward of the city of Algiers; but were diſgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take ſhelter on board their ſhips, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783 and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks againſt Algiers by ſea, but after ſpending much ammunition, and loſing many lives, were forced to retire without doing much injury.

When the war with Great Britain and her American colonies had ſubſiſted for ſome time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was alſo prevailed upon to commence hoſtilities againſt Great Britain. The Spaniards cloſely beſieged Gibraltar, both by ſea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortreſs ſhould be poſſeſſed by the Engliſh. The grand attack was on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ſhips, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, carrying in all 212 braſs guns, entirely new, and diſcharging ſhot of 26 pounds weight. The ſhowers of ſhot and ſhells which were directed from them, from their land batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garriſon, exhibited a ſcene of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furniſh a competent idea. It is ſufficient to ſay, that *four hundred pieces* of the heavieſt artillery were playing at the ſame moment: an inſtance which has ſcarcely occurred in any ſiege ſince the invention of thoſe wonderful engines of deſtruction.

The irreſiſtible impreſſion of the numerous red-hot balls from the garriſon was ſoon conſpicuous; for in the afternoon, ſmoke was perceived to iſſue from the admiral's ſhip and another, and by one in the morning ſeveral were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown

up from each of their ſhips as ſignals of diſtreſs; and thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortreſs of Gibraltar. Some trifling operations continued on the ſide of the Spaniards till the reſtoration of peace in 1783.

In other enterpriſes, however, the Spaniards proved more ſucceſsful. The iſland of Minorca was ſurrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been beſieged for 171 days. The garriſon conſiſted of no more than 2692 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spaniſh commander at firſt attempted to corrupt the governor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the ſiege was commenced in form; and the garriſon would have ſhowed themſelves equally invincible with thoſe of Gibraltar, had it been poſſible to relieve them in the ſame manner. The ſcurvy ſoon made its appearance, and reduced them to ſuch a deplorable ſituation, that they were at laſt obliged to ſurrender in ſpite of every effort of human fortitude or ſkill; and ſo ſenſible were both parties that this was the true cauſe, that the Spaniſh general allowed them to march out with their arms ſhouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, while the diſconſolate Britiſh ſoldiers proteſted that they ſurrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

His late catholic majeſty did all he could to oblige his ſubjects to deſiſt from their ancient dreſs and manners, and carried his endeavours ſo far, that it occaſioned ſuch a dangerous inſurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his miniſter, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an inſtance of the neceſſity that even deſpotic princes are under, of paying ſome attention to the inclinations of their ſubjects.

The government of Spain teſtified much uneaſineſs at the French revolution, and watched narrowly thoſe who ſpoke in favour of its principles. The circulation of all public papers and political pamphlets from France was ſeverely prohibited. The proclamation againſt tinkers and knife-grinders introducing ſeditious papers into the kingdom, and the reſcript concerning ſtrangers, ſhow all the deformity, but, at the ſame time, the old age of deſpotiſm. If dotage be a ſign of decay, theſe ſymptoms are very apparent in this government; and a temperate revolution in Spain would be a matter of far more exultation to the philoſopher, than that of France; for its miſeries are far greater. Liberty, ſcience, and true religion, were confined in France; but in Spain they are trampled under the brutal feet of monks and bigots.

A ſhort war aroſe between the Spaniards and the emperor of Morocco. The emperor beſieged Ceuta, but peace is ſince reſtored. It was unjuſtly ſurmiſed that this war was entered into, in order to divert the attention of the people, who might be impreſſed with the affairs of France; but the reign of ignorance and bigotry is ſo firmly eſtabliſhed in Spain, that many years may elapſe before any idea of freedom is formed in that unhappy kingdom. In France the criſis was prepared by innumerable writings; but it is believed that not even a pamphlet exiſts in the Spaniſh language, which diſplays any juſt or liberal notions of government.

The ſudden diſmiſſion of count Florida Blanca from the office of prime miniſter originated in cauſes not diſcloſed. It is imagined that the court found this ſtep neceſſary, to appeaſe the public murmurs at ſome late meaſures, particularly the edict concerning ſtrangers, which contributed to impoſe farther fetters upon commerce, and which has ſince been repealed. On the 28th of February, 1792, the miniſter was re-

moved, and count d'Aranda, an old ſtateſman, a warm friend of the queen and nobility of France, ſucceeded to his employments, till ſome other arrangement could be formed. It is ſaid, he aboliſhed the ſuperintendent tribunal of police, a kind of civil inquiſition; and in other liberal meaſures appeared to ſee the real intereſt of monarchs, which is certainly to concede with grace, in order to prevent the deſpair of the people from recurring to force. His influence, however, was but ſhort; and has been ſucceeded by that of the duke d'Alcudia.

The irregularities committed in France, the indecent reception of the humane interference of the court of Spain in favour of the king, and the induſtry of the confederated ſovereigns, induced the court of Spain to declare war againſt France, on the 23d of March 1793. The iſſue of this war, the treaty of peace concluded by Spain with the French republic on the 23d of July 1795, and the ſubſequent hoſtilities with England, have already been mentioned in our hiſtorical accounts of thoſe countries.

Charles IV. king of Spain, born Nov. 11, 1748, aſcended the throne Dec. 13, 1788 (upon the death of his father, Charles III.) and was married to Louiſa-Maria-Thereſa, princeſs of Parma, Sept. 4, 1765, by whom he has iſſue,

1. Charlotte, born April 25, 1775.
2. Mary-Louiſa, born July 9, 1777.
3. Philip, born Aug. 10, 1783.
4. Ferdinand, born Oct. 14, 1784.
5. Maria-Iſabella, born July 6, 1789.

Brothers to the king:

1. Ferdinand, the preſent king of the Two Sicilies, born in 1751, married, in 1768, to the arch-ducheſs Mary-Cardire-Louiſa, ſiſter to Joſeph II. late emperor of Germany.
2. Anthony-Paſcal, born Dec. 31, 1755.

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# PORTUGAL.

## SITUATION, AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 300 | between | 37 and 42 | North latitude. |
| Breadth | 100 | | 7 and 10 | Weſt longitude. |

Containing 32,000 ſquare miles, with 72 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the North and Eaſt, and on the South and Weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, being the moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS. This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Luſitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It moſt probably is derived from ſome noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for ſo ſtrangers are called in the Celtic) reſorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and ſouthern provinces. The provinces are ſix in number.

| | Provinces. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| The northern diviſion contains | Entre Douro e Minho - - - | Oporto, Viana, Braga | 6814 |
| | Tras os Montes | Miranda, Braganza, Villa Real | |
| The middle diviſion contains | Beira - - - - - | Coimbra, Guarda, Caſtel Rodrigo | 12640 |
| | Eſtremadura - - | Lisbon (38.42 N. lat. 8.53 W. lon.), Leiria St. Ubes | |
| The ſouthern diviſion contains | Alentejo - - | Evora, Elvas, Beja, Portalegre | 8597 |
| | Algarve - - - - | Faro, Lagos, Tavora, Silves | |

Soil, air, and productions.] The ſoil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, eſpecially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the ſame as in Spain, but not ſo highly flavoured. The Portugueſe wines, when old and genuine, are eſteemed to be very friendly to the human conſtitution, and ſafe to drink*.

Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles, and mill-ſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petre near Liſbon. The cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, eſpecially about Liſbon, is reckoned ſoft and beneficial to conſumptive patients; it is not ſo ſcorching as that of Spain, being refreſhed from the ſea-breezes.

Mountains.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for the mountains are generally barren: the chief are thoſe which divide Algarve from Alentejo; thoſe of Tras os Montes; Arrabida and Montejunto in Eſtremadura; Eſtrella in Beira; Oſſa in Alentejo; and Cintra, about five leagues ſouth-weſt of Liſbon, well-known to navigators as being the moſt weſterly part of all Europe. The cape contiguous to it, at the mouth of the Tajo, is called the rock of Cintra, or the rock of Liſbon.

Water and rivers.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portugueſe rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic Ocean. The Tagus or Tajo was celebrated for its golden ſand. The Minho and Douro are the boundaries of the province Entre Douro e Minho. Portugal contains ſeveral roaring lakes and ſprings; ſome of them are abſorbent even of the lighteſt ſubſtances, ſuch as wood, cork, and feathers; ſome, particularly one about 45 miles from Liſbon, are medicinal and ſanative; and ſome hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province, of Algarve.

Promontories and bays.] The promontories or capes of Portugal are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roxo, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Eſpithel, at the ſouth entrance of the river Tajo; and cape St. Vincent, on the ſouth-weſt point of Algarve. The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarve.

Animals.] The ſea-fiſh, on the coaſt of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules

* The Port-wines are made in the diſtricts round Oporto, which does not produce one-half the quantity that is conſumed, under that name, in the Britiſh dominions only. The merchants in this city have very ſpacious wine-vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is ſaid that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

are ſure, and ſerviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horſes, though ſlight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. According to the beſt calculation, Portugal contains about two millions, or two millions and a half of inhabitants. The number of Portugueſe in all the colonies appertaining to the crown are eſtimated at about nine hundred thouſand. By a ſurvey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3,344 pariſhes, and 1,742,230 lay perſons (which is but 522 laity to each pariſh on a medium) beſides above 300,000 eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes.

The modern Portugueſe retain nothing of that adventurous enterpriſing ſpirit that rendered their forefathers ſo illuſtrious 300 years ago. They have, ever ſince the houſe of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though ſome noble exceptions are ſtill remaining among them, and no people are ſo little obliged as the Portugueſe are to the reports of hiſtorians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of diſobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the ſource of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate paſſion for revenge. They are, if poſſible, more ſuperſtitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more ſtate, than the Spaniards themſelves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practiſed; and all ranks are accuſed of being unfair in their dealings, eſpecially with ſtrangers. It is hard, however, to ſay what alteration may be made in the character of the Portugueſe, by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, and diminution of the papal influence among them; but above all, by that ſpirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, though to the intereſt of their own country, is now ſo much encouraged by their court and miniſtry.

The Portugueſe are neither ſo tall nor ſo well made as the Spaniards, whoſe habits and cuſtoms they imitate; only the quality affect to be more gaily and richly dreſſed. The Portugueſe ladies are thin, and ſmall of ſtature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expreſſive, and their features generally regular. They are eſteemed to be generous, modeſt, and witty. They dreſs like the Spaniſh ladies, with much awkwardneſs, and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their huſbands to exact from their ſervants a homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal perſonages. The furniture of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; and they maintain an incredible number of domeſtics, as they never diſcharge any who ſurvive after ſerving their anceſtors. The poorer ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, ſit always croſs-legged on the ground. The Portugueſe peaſant has never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vaſt countries the kings of Portugal poſſeſſed in Africa or in the Eaſt; or of thoſe ſtill remaining to them in South America. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when his feeble purſe can reach it, he purchaſes a dried Newfoundland cod-fiſh; but this is a regale he dares ſeldom aſpire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a ſalted pilchard, or a head of garlic, to give that bread a flavour, compoſe his ſtanding diſh; and if he can get a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf, he himſelf fattens, to regale his wretched family at Chriſtmas or Eaſter, he has reached the pinnacle

of happineſs in this world; and indeed whatever he poſſeſſed beyond this habitual penury, according to the preſent ſtate and exertions of his intellects, would quickly be taken from him, or rather he would willingly part with it, being taught by his numberleſs ghoſtly comforters, with which his country ſwarms, to look forward for eaſe and happineſs to another ſtate of exiſtence, to which they are themſelves the infallible guides and conductors.

To theſe remarks, we ſhall ſubjoin thoſe of Mr. Murphy, a late traveller in Portugal:—"The common people of Liſbon and its environs are a laborious and hardy race. It is painful to ſee the trouble they are obliged to take for want of proper implements to carry on their work. Their cars have the rude appearance of the earlieſt ages; theſe vehicles are ſlowly drawn by two ſtout oxen. The corn is ſhelled by the treading of the ſame animals. They have many other cuſtoms which to us appear very ſingular; for example, women ſit with the left ſide towards the horſe's head when they ride. A poſtillion rides on the left horſe. A tailor ſits at his work like a ſhoemaker. A hair-dreſſer appears on Sundays with a ſword, a cockade, and two watches, at leaſt two watch-chains. A tavern is known by a vine buſh, a houſe to be let by a piece of blank paper, the door of an accoucheur by a white croſs, and a Jew by his extra-catholic devotion.—A Portugueſe peaſant will not walk with a ſuperior, an aged perſon, or a ſtranger, without giving him the right hand ſide, as a mark of reſpect. He never paſſes by a human being without taking off his hat, and ſaluting him in theſe words, *the Lord preſerve you for many years*. In ſpeaking of an abſent friend he always ſays—'I die with impatience to ſee him.'—They all imagine their country is the bleſſed Elyſium, and that Liſbon is the greateſt city in the world."

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal is popery, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueſe have a patriarch; but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unleſs when a quarrel ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his holineſs in Portugal has been of late ſo much curtailed, that it is difficult to deſcribe the religious ſtate of that country: all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly increaſed, at the expenſe of the religious inſtitutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquiſition is now taken out of the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, and converted to a ſtate-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are thoſe of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops; the ſecond, two; and the laſt, ten, including thoſe of the Portugueſe ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portugueſe language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre noſſo que eſtas nos ceos, ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha a nos tuo reyno. ſeia feita a tua votade, aſſi nos ceos, como na terra. O pao noſſo de codidia, dano lo oei neſtro dia. E perdoa nos as noſſas devidas, aſſi como nos perdoamos a os noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir om tentaçao, mas libra nos do mal.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Theſe are ſo few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by thoſe of the Portugueſe themſelves who have the ſmalleſt tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable ſtate of ignorance. It is univerſally allowed, that the

defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The anceſtors of the preſent Portugueſe were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowledge, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than perhaps any other European nation, about the middle of the 16th century, and for ſome time after. Camoens, who himſelf was a great adventurer and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected, poetical genius.

Universities.] Theſe are Coimbra, founded in 1291, by king Dennis; and which had fifty profeſſors: but it has lately been put under ſome new regulations; Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Liſbon, where the young nobility are educated in every branch of polite learning and the ſciences. All the books that did belong to the baniſhed Jeſuits are kept here, which compoſe a very large library. The Engliſh language is likewiſe taught in this college. Here is alſo a military and marine academy, where young gentlemen are educated in the ſcience of engineering and naval tactics.

Curiosities.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned, form the chief of theſe. The remains of ſome caſtles in the Mooriſh taſte are ſtill ſtanding. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almoſt entire, and deſervedly admired. The walls of Santareen are ſaid to be of Roman work likewiſe. The church and monaſtery near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpreſſibly magnificent, and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is probably one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world; the paintings are moſaic work, ſo curiouſly wrought with ſtones of all colours, as to aſtoniſh the beholders. To theſe curioſities we may add, that the king is poſſeſſed of the largeſt, though not the moſt valuable, diamond in the world. It was found in Braſil.

Chief cities.] Liſbon is the capital of Portugal. Of the population of this city (ſays Mr Murphy) no exact account has been recently publiſhed, and the rapid increaſe of its inhabitants of late years muſt render any calculation of that kind very uncertain. In the year 1774, the forty pariſhes into which Liſbon is divided were found to contain 33,764 houſes; and in the year 1790, they amounted to 38,102. Hence it appears to have increaſed 4,338 houſes, in the courſe of theſe ten years. Now if we eſtimate each houſe on an average at ſix perſons, which, perhaps is within the truth, the population in the year 1790 was 228,612. To theſe are to be added the religious of both ſexes, with their attendants, who dwell in convents and monaſteries, the ſoldiery, the profeſſors and ſtudents of ſeminaries of education, and ſuch of the Galician labourers as have no fixed dwelling; their aggregate amount, if my information be correct, is not very ſhort of 12,000. According to this ſtatement, therefore, the population of Liſbon exceeds 240,000. From the magnitude of the city, indeed, we ſhould be induced to ſuppoſe that its population was conſiderably more than above ſtated; for it is computed to be four miles long, by one and a half broad; but many of the houſes have large gardens; and ſuch as have not, are, in general, laid out upon a large ſcale, on account of the heat of the climate.

The fatal effects of the earthquake in 1755, are ſtill viſible in many parts of the city, and never fail to impreſs every ſpectator with an awful remembrance of that diſaſter; according to the moſt accurate accounts, there were not leſs than 24.000 victims to it. The Portugueſe have, however, availed themſelves of this misfortune, and, like the Engliſh, after the deſtructive fire of 1666, have turned the temporal evil into a

permanent good. All the new ſtreets erected in Liſbon, in the place of the old, are capacious, regular, and well paved, with convenient foot-paths for paſſengers, as in the ſtreets of London. In point of cleanlineſs, Liſbon is no longer ſo much a ſubject of animadverſion to ſtrangers as formerly; but all is not yet done, as it ſtill wants common ſewers, pipe-water and privies. Liſbon is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence againſt ſhips of war. The ſecond city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the ſhops in the city are coopers. The merchants aſſemble daily in the chief ſtreet, to tranſact buſineſs; and are protected from the ſun by ſail-cloths hung acroſs from the oppoſite houſes. About thirty Engliſh families reſide here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe, within theſe few years, have taken a ſurpriſing turn in Portugal. The miniſtry have projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of as unjuſt and oppreſſive, and inconſiſtent with the privileges which the Britiſh merchants formerly enjoyed by the moſt ſolemn treaties.

The Portugueſe exchange their wine, ſalt, and fruit, and moſt of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and ſome coarſe ſilk and woollen, with a variety of ſtraw work, and are excellent in preſerving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though ſeemingly extenſive, proves of little ſolid benefit to her, as the European nations trading with her, engroſs all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, ſugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Braſil, her ivory, ebony, ſpices, and drugs of Africa and Eaſt India, in exchange for the almoſt numberleſs manufactures, and the vaſt quantity of corn and ſalt-fiſh, ſupplied by thoſe European nations, and by the Engliſh North American colonies.

The Portugueſe foreign ſettlements are, however, not only of immenſe value, but vaſtly improvable. Theſe are Braſil, the Iſles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, and likewiſe ſlaves for manufacturing their ſugars and tobacco in Braſil, and their South American ſettlements.

What the value of theſe latter may be, is unknown perhaps to themſelves; but they certainly abound in all the precious ſtones, and rich mines of gold and ſilver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spaniſh dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold ſent from Braſil amounts annually to 300,000l. ſterling, notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade. The little ſhipping the Portugueſe have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the ſlave trade, and a correſpondence with Goa, their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt Indies, and their other poſſeſſions there, as Diu, Daman, Macao, &c.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is abſolute; but the nation ſtill preſerves an appearance of its ancient free conſtitution, in the meeting of the cortes, or ſtates, conſiſting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being conſulted upon the impoſition of new taxes; but the only real power they have, is, that their aſſent is neceſſary in every new regu-

lation with regard to the ſucceſſion. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future diſputes on that account.

This government may be fairly pronounced the moſt deſpotic in Europe. The eſtabliſhed law is generally a dead letter, excepting where its decrees are carried into execution by the ſupplementary mandates of the ſovereign, which are generally employed in defeating the purpoſes of ſafety and protection; which law is calculated to extend equally over all the ſubjects.

The people here have no more ſhare in the direction of government, in enacting of laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce, than they have in the government of Ruſſia, or China. The far greater part know nothing of what is done in that reſpect. Every man has no other alternative but to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerns himſelf, to the decrees and laws of the deſpot, as promulgated from time to time by his ſecretaries of ſtate. How would an Engliſhman, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading the preamble of every new law publiſhed here! and which runs thus: "*I, the king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleaſure, and of my full, ſupreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do, in conſequence, order and command, &c. &c.*"

All great preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal, are diſpoſed of in the council of ſtate, which is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the ſecretary of ſtate. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treaſury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Caſa da Supplicaçao is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half ſterling, annually. The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported and imported are exceſſive, and farmed out; but if the Portugueſe miniſtry ſhould ſucceed in all their projects, and in eſtabliſhing excluſive companies, to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear theſe taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandiſe pays twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland twenty-five per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pays twenty-ſeven per cent. and the tax upon lands, and cattle that are ſold, is ten per cent. The king derives a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-maſter. The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgences, and licences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increaſed by the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits, and other religious orders and inſtitutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueſe government uſed to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the ſame friendly connection between Great Britain and Portugal does not at preſent ſubſiſt. In the late reign, though they received the moſt effectual aſſiſtance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his Moſt Faithful Majeſty judged it expedient to raiſe a conſiderable body of troops, who were chiefly diſciplined by foreign officers; but ſince that period, the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to

the diſcipline of the troops, ſo that the military force of Portugal is now again inconſiderable, amounting, it is ſaid, to 25,000 men. The naval force of this kingdom is computed at thirteen ſail of the line and fifteen frigates.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, King of Portugal and the Algarves, on this and on the other ſide of the ſea in Africa. Lord of Guinea, and of the conqueſt, navigation, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. John V. was complimented, by the pope, with the title of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty. The title of the heir apparent is Prince of Brazil; and that of his eldeſt ſon Prince of Beira. The reſt of the princes of the blood royal are called Infante.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed ſaltier-wiſe, and pointed, ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules, charged with ſeven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. —The ſupporters are two winged dragons, and the creſt a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the firſt fleur de-lis, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the ſecond patee, gules, for the order of Chriſt; the motto is changeable, each king aſſuming a new one; but it is frequently theſe words, *pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King and the People."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The titles and diſtinctions of their nobility are much the ſame as thoſe of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Avis* or *Aviez*, firſt inſtituted by Alphonſus Henriquez, king of Portugal, in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213, it was ſubject to the order of Calatrava, in Spain; but when Don John of Portugal ſeized the crown, he made it again independent. 2. The "Order of St. *James*," inſtituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1310, ſuppoſing that under that ſaint's protection he became victorious over the Moors; and he endowed it with great privileges. The knights profeſs chaſtity, hoſpitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their enſign is a red ſword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The "Order of *Chriſt*" was inſtituted in the year 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to aſſiſt him more powerfully againſt the Moors. The knights obtained great poſſeſſions, and elected their grand-maſter, till 1522, when pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his ſucceſſors to the crown of Portugal. Theſe orders have ſmall commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in ſmall eſteem. The "Order of *Malta*" has likewiſe twenty-two commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.] This kingdom comprehends the greateſt part of the ancient Luſitania, and ſhared the ſame fate with the other Spaniſh provinces, in the conteſts between the Carthaginians and Romans, and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and was ſucceſſively in ſubjection to the Suevi, Alans, Viſigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonſus VI. king of Caſtile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandſon of Robert, king of France, for his bravery and aſſiſtance againſt the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Chriſtians. Henry was ſucceeded by his ſon Alphonſus Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a deciſive victory over five Mooriſh kings, in July, 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonſus was then proclaimed king by his ſoldiers. He reigned forty-ſix years, and was eſteemed for his courage

and love of learning.—His deſcendents maintained themſelves on the throne for ſome centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice, in the year 1240.

Dennis I. or Dionyſius, was called the *Father of his country:* he built and rebuilt forty-four cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Chriſt, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned forty-ſix years.—Under his ſucceſſor, Alphonſus IV. happened ſeveral earthquakes at Liſbon, which threw down part of the city, and deſtroyed many lives. John I. was illuſtrious for his courage, prudence, and conqueſts in Africa; under him Madeira was firſt diſcovered, in 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and, after a reign of forty-nine years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonſo V. about 1480, the Portugueſe diſcovered the coaſt of Guinea; and in the reign of his ſucceſſor, John II. they diſcovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, ſettled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the Eaſt Indies. Emanuel, ſurnamed the Great, ſucceeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predeceſſors, fitting out fleets for new diſcoveries. Vaſco de Gama, under him, cruiſed along the coaſt of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Hindooſtan: and in the year 1500, Alvarez diſcovered Braſil.

John III. ſucceeded in 1521, and while he loſt ſome of his African ſettlements, made new acquiſitions in the Indies. He ſent the famous Xavier as a miſſionary to Japan, and, in the height of his zeal, eſtabliſhed that infernal tribunal, the inquiſition, in Portugal, anno 1526, againſt the entreaties and remonſtrances of his people. Sebaſtian, his grandſon, ſucceeded him in 1557, and undertook a cruſade againſt the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either ſlain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebaſtian, being the ſon of Emanuel, ſucceeded, but died without iſſue, in the year 1580: on which, Antony, prior of Crato, was choſen king, by the ſtates of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, as has been obſerved in our hiſtory of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, becauſe his mother was the eldeſt daughter of Emanuel, and ſent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who ſubdued the country, and proclaimed his maſter king of Portugal the 12th of September, 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two ſucceſſors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved towards the Portugueſe with great rapacity and violence. The Spaniſh miniſters treated them as vaſſals of Spain, and, by their repeated acts of oppreſſion and tyranny, ſo excited the hatred and courage of the Portugueſe, as to produce a revolt at Liſbon, the firſt of December, 1640. The people obliged John, duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he ſucceeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almoſt without bloodſhed; and the foreign ſettlements alſo acknowledged him as their ſovereign. A fierce war ſubſiſted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to re-unite them proved vain, ſo that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and, upon the reſtoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom.

Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they, uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown, but obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the battle of Almanza, in 1707.—John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, whoſe reign was neither happy to himſelf, nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and ſhook his kingdom to the centre. His ſucceeding adminiſtration was not diſtinguiſhed by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it ſuſtained abroad. It was deeply ſtained with domeſtic blood, and rendered odious by exceſſive and horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life, in a ſolitary place near his country palace of Belem. The families of Aveira and Tavora were deſtroyed by torture, in conſequence of an accuſation being exhibited againſt them of having conſpired againſt the king's life. But they were condemned without proper evidence, and their innocence has been ſince authentically declared. From this ſuppoſed conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the Jeſuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions. The marquis de Pombal, who was at this time the prime miniſter of Portugal, governed the kingdom for many years with a moſt unbounded authority, and which appears to have been ſometimes directed to the moſt cruel and arbitrary purpoſes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies, the French, attempted to force his Faithful Majeſty into their alliance, and offered to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh, with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in conſideration of the apparent danger of Portugal. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that, had they been in earneſt, they might have been maſters of Liſbon, long before the arrival of the Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe. However, a few Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their courage and conduct to the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau, in 1763. Notwithſtanding this eminent ſervice performed by the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, who often had been ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever ſince that period, cannot be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The moſt captious diſtinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portugueſe miniſters, for cramping the Engliſh trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portugueſe majeſty having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to don Pedro, her own uncle, to

prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daughter, the preſent queen. One of the firſt acts of her majeſty's reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppreſſive nature of his adminiſtration; though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted ſundry public meaſures which were calculated to promote the real intereſts of Portugal.

On the 10th of March, 1792, the prince of Braſil, as preſumptive heir to the crown, publiſhed an edict, declaring, that as his mother from her unhappy ſituation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his ſignature to public papers, till the return of her health; and that no other change ſhould be made in the forms.

Portugal, as the ally of England, has taken a feeble part in the war againſt France; but her exertions were confined to furniſhing Spain with a few auxiliary troops, and ſending a ſmall ſquadron to join the Engliſh fleet. In Auguſt 1797, however, a negotiation for a treaty of peace between France and Portugal was entered into, and the treaty actually concluded; but the French directory refuſed to ratify it, alleging that the queen of Portugal, ſo far from ſhowing a diſpoſition to abide by its articles, had put her forts and principal ports into the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh. Since the failure of this attempt at negotiation, Portugal has continued a member of the alliance againſt France; though her aid has been very unimportant, conſiſting only of a ſmall ſquadron, which has cruiſed in the Mediterranean, and aſſiſted in the blockade of Malta.

The queen is diſordered by religious melancholy; Dr. Willis, at the requeſt of the prince, ſome time ſince, made a voyage to Liſbon to attempt her cure; but her recovery remaining hopeleſs, the government of the country reſts with the prince of Braſil.

Maria-Frances-Iſabella, queen of Portugal, born December 17, 1734; married, June 6, 1760, to her uncle, don Pedro Clement, F. R. S. born July 5, 1717, who died May 25, 1786; began to reign February 24, 1777.

Their iſſue.

John-Maria-Joſeph-Louis, born May 13, 1767; married, March 20, 1785, Maria-Louiſa, of Spain, born July 9, 1777.

The iſſue by the late king.

1. Her preſent majeſty.
2. Anna-Frances-Antoinetta, born October 8, 1736.
3. Maria-Franciſca-Benedicta, born July 24, 1746; married, in 1776, to her nephew, the prince of Braſil, who died September 11, 1788.

# ITALY.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 600 | between | 38 and 47 North latitude. |
| Breadth 400 | | 7 and 19 East longitude. |

Containing 116,967 ſquare miles, with 170 inhabitants in each.

THE form of Italy renders it very difficult to aſcertain its extent and dimenſions; for, according to ſome accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland, to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to thoſe of the dominions of the ſtates of Venice, which is its greateſt breadth, about 400 miles, though in ſome parts it is ſcarcely 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the Eaſt it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic Sea; on the South and Weſt by the Mediterranean Sea; and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corſica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other iſlands, are divided and exhibited in the following table:

| ITALY. Countries' Names. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| To the King of Sardinia. | Piedmont | 6619 | 140 | 98 | Turin |
| | Montferrat | 446 | 40 | 22 | Caſal |
| | Aleſſandrine | 204 | 27 | 20 | Aleſſandria |
| | Oneglia | 132 | 24 | 7 | Oneglia |
| | Sardinia I. | 6600 | 135 | 57 | Cagliari |
| To the King of Naples. | Naples | 22,000 | 275 | 100 | Naples |
| | Sicily I. | 9400 | 180 | 92 | Palermo |
| To the Emperor. | Milan | 5431 | 155 | 70 | Milan |
| | Mantua | 700 | 47 | 27 | Mantua |
| | Mirandola | 120 | 19 | 10 | Mirandola |
| | Pope's dominions | 14,348 | 235 | 143 | ROME (N. Lat. 41. 54. E. Long. 12. 45.) |
| To their reſpective princes. | Tuſcany | 6640 | 115 | 94 | Florence |
| | Maſſa | 82 | 16 | 11 | Maſſa |
| | Modena | 2560 | 65 | 39 | Modena |
| | Parma | 1225 | 48 | 37 | Parma |
| | Piombino | 100 | 22 | 18 | Piombino |
| | Monaco | 24 | 12 | 4 | Monaco |
| Republics. | Lucca | 286 | 28 | 15 | Lucca |
| | St. Marino | 8 | | | St. Marino |
| | Genoa | 2400 | 160 | 55 | Genoa |
| To the Emperor. | Venice | 8434 | 175 | 95 | Venice |
| | Iſtria | 1245 | 6 | 32 | Capo d'Iſtria |
| | Dalmatia P. | 1400 | 135 | 20 | Zara |
| To France* | Savoy | 3572 | 87 | 60 | Chamberry |
| | Corſica I. | 1520 | 90 | 38 | Baſtia |
| | Iſles of Dalmatia | 1364 | | | |
| | Cephalonia | 428 | 40 | 18 | Cephalonia |
| | Corfu, or Corcyra | 194 | 31 | 10 | Corfu |
| | Zant, or Zacynthus | 120 | 23 | 12 | Zant |
| | St. Maura | 56 | 12 | 7 | St. Maura. |
| | Little Cephalonia (Ithaca olim) | 14 | 7 | 3 | |
| | Total | 97,672 | | | |

* Several of the late Venetian iſlands have ſince been taken by the Turkiſh and Ruſſian fleets.

Plate XIII.

# ITALY
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

SWITZERLAND
GERMANY
FRANCE
SAVOY
PIEDMONT
MILAN
VENICE
PARMA
MODENA
TUSCANY
STATES OF THE CHURCH
TURKEY IN EUROPE
ADRIATIC SEA OR GULF OF VENICE
CORSICA
SARDINIA
ISLES OF LIPARI
SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA

Geneva, Lyons, Chamberry, Grenoble, Turin, Nice, Aix, Toulon, Hieres I.s, Milan, Trent, Mantua, Padua, Venice, Udine, Belluno, Feltre, Goritz, Trieste, Aquileia, Parma, Modena, Bologna, Ravenna, Rimini, Ancona, Urbino, Florence, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Siena, Perugia, Loretto, Formo, Chiozi, Ancona, Pesaro, Rimini, Grossa I., Lesina I., Meleda I., Durazzo, Gulf of Manfredonia, Lucera, Trani, Barri, Brindisi, Lecce, Otranto, la Valona, Gulf of Gallipoli, Tarento, Ugento, C. S.t Leuca, Corfu I., C. Spartivento, Gulf of Messina, Messina, Catania, Augusta, Syracuse, Palermo, Trapani, Marsala, Mazzara, Sciacca, Girgenti, Melazzo, Volcano I., Stromboli I., Alicur I., Felicura I., Panaro I., Falconara I., Maretimo I., Levanzo I., Galita I., C. Bianco, C. Serrat, C. Rosa, Bona, Cape Bon, Tunis, C. Tusilham, Pantellaria I., Canal of Malta, Goza d'Malta, Malta, C. Passaro, Augusta, Syracuse, Ischia I., Capua, Gaeta, Naples, G. of Naples, G. of Salerno, C. di Palinuro, Cirella, Citraro, Cozanza, Catanzaro, Squillace, Cariati, Roseto, C. Rosto, Pescano, Corigliano, Cape Spartivento, Bonifacio, Str: of Bonifacio, Porto Vecchio, Porto Torres, Sassari, Alghero, Oristagni, C. Comin, C. di Sina, I. Maddelenette, Alx, Arrigun, Cagliari, Porto Conclo, C. Ferralo, L. Serpentara, L. Cantonaro, L. C. Pierre, L. S. Antioco, C. Teulado, Asinara I., C. Falcone, Porto Torres, Porto Vecchio, Bonifacio, Str: of, C. Nero, Valinco, Ajaccio, Corte, Bastia, C. Corso, Elba I., St. Fiorenza, Orbitello, Civita Vecchia, Rome, Tivoli, Albano, Velletri, Nettuno, M.t Circello, I. Sennone, I. di Ponza, I. di Ventotene, Gaeta, Sessa, Capua, Aversa, Naples, M.t Vesuvius, Salerno, Ischia I., Isles of Tremiti, Vieste, Termoli, Molise, Manfredonia, Lucera, Foggia, Trani, Barri, Minervino, Polignano, Ostune, Brindisi, Lecce, Otranto, Matera, Taranto, Gallipoli, Gulf of Gallipoli, Tarento, Ugento, C. S.t Leuca, Corfu I., la Valona, Durazzo, Meleda I., Lesina I., Grossa I., Ancona, Loretto, Osimo, Urbino, Rimini, Pesaro, Ravenna, Comachio, Po R., Ferrara, Rovigo, Mirandola, Verona, Vicenza, Padua, Treviso, Udine, Belluno, Feltre, Goritz, Trieste, Aquileia, Gradisca, Gorizia, Bergamo, Lecco, Milan, Trent, Verona, Vicenza, Mantua, Padua, Venice, Placenza, Parma, Modena, Bologna, Ravenna, Rimini, Grossa I., Lucca, Pistoia, Florence, Arezzo, Leghorn, Siena, Cortona, Perugia, Loretto, Osimo, Urbino, Ancona, Pesaro, Rimini

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the moſt general productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants; and, were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe called Parmeſans, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air: and ſome parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential, through the decreaſe of inhabitants, which has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with ſnow in winter. The Apennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the ſouth being warm, thoſe on the north mild and temperate. The ſea breezes refreſh the kingdom of Naples ſo much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithſtanding its ſouthern ſituation. In general, the air of Italy may be ſaid to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Apennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Veſuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary between Italy and the ancient Ciſalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Iſco, and Garda, in the north; the Perugia, or Thraſimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULFS, OR BAYS, CAPES, PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS. } Without a knowledge of theſe, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the hiſtory or geograghy of Italy, can be underſtood. The ſeas of Italy are the gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea; the ſeas of Naples, Tuſcany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Finale, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Reggio, Squilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento, del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; the ſtrait of Meſſina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian iſlands are thoſe of Fiorenzo, Baſtia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſo. Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corſica; and the ſtrait of Bonifacio, between Corſica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oriſtagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Meſſina, Melazzo, Palmero, Mazara, Syracuſe, and Catania; Cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Paſſaro, and Aleſſia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the iſland of Elba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound with mineral ſprings; ſome hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphureous, chalybeate, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few

places: and a mill for forging and fabricating theſe metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is ſaid to contain mines of gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected; and curious cryſtals and coral are found on the coaſt of Corſica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. Beſides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of ſoil, Italy produces citrons, and ſuch quantities of cheſnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or ſea, and thoſe of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great meaſure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's ſubjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itſelf, by the beſt accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of thoſe who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have ariſen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. It ſeems probable that the preſent inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and ſome other of the moſt beautiful parts of Italy, are at preſent in a manner deſolate; but we are to conſider that the princes and ſtates of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds; which undoubtedly promotes population; ſo that it may not, perhaps, be extravagant, if we aſſign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but ſome calculations greatly exceed that number*. The Italians are generally well-proportioned, and have ſuch meaning in their looks, that they have greatly aſſiſted the ideas of their painters. The women are well-ſhaped, and very amorous. The marriage-ties, eſpecially of the better ſort, are ſaid to be of very little value in Italy. Every wife has been repreſented to have her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom ſhe keeps company, and ſometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either ſide. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed the repreſentations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the beſt quality of a modern Italian is ſobriety, and they ſubmit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity, they diſcover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more ſuperſtitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native cuſtoms, and ſeem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondneſs for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and ſatisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peaſant can be luxurious at a very ſmall expenſe. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many deſcendants of the ancient Romans, yet the preſent inhabitants ſpeak of themſelves as ſucceſſors of the conquerors of the world, and look upon the reſt of mankind with contempt.

* Mr. Swinburne ſays, that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples amounted to 4,249,430, excluſive of the army and naval eſtabliſhments.

The dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dreſſed in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts: though they make at preſent but a very inconſiderable figure in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when young: to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.

The Italians, the Venetians eſpecially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away by unſuitable marriages, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire miſtreſſes for them, for a month, or a year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenſed trade. The Italian courteſans, or *bona-robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe-races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief diverſions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living. Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns. No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a mattreſs of ſtraw and next to that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp: for a covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlit. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches. An Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lie in this manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never yet been waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here, is that men, and not women, make the ladies' beds, and would do every office of a maid-ſervant, if ſuffered. They never ſcour their pewter; their knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely, and ſend up ten times as much as you can eat. The ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage: another fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey, roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſo ſtringy, you may divide the breaſt into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable morſel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad; and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infeſt us by day and night.

Religion ] The religion of the Italians is Roman catholic. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound; and perſons of all religions live unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to their wor-

ſhip. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of popery in Italy, from whence it ſpread over all Europe; likewiſe of the cauſes and ſymptoms of its decline. The eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holineſs, are ſeventy; but that number is ſeldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs that religion. His chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amaſſing what he can. When met in a conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to controul the pope, in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and have been ſometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is ſeldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a ſcene where the cardinals principally endeavour to diſplay their abilities, and where many tranſactions paſs very inconſiſtent with their pretended inſpiration by the Holy Ghoſt. During the election of a pope, in 1721, the animoſities ran ſo high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink-ſtandiſhes at each other. We ſhall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the proteſtant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Chriſtians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

"I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical traditions, and all other conſtitutions of the church of Rome.

"I do admit the holy ſcriptures in the ſame ſenſe that holy mother-church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true ſenſe and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous conſent of the fathers.

"I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacraments of the law, truly and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt our Lord, and neceſſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of theſe, baptiſm, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without ſacrilege. I do alſo receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her ſolemn adminiſtration of the aboveſaid ſacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent* concerning original ſin and juſtification.

"I do alſo profeſs that in the maſs there is offered unto God a true, proper and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly, really, and ſubſtantially, the body and blood, together with the ſoul and divinity, of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made of the whole ſub-

* A convocation of Roman catholic cardinals, archbiſhops, biſhops, and divines, who aſſembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to ſuppreſs what they were pleaſed to term the riſing hereſies in the church.

ſtance of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the wine into the blood; which converſion the catholic church calls Tranſubſtantiation. I confeſs that under one kind only, whole and entire, Chriſt and a true ſacrament is taken and received.

"I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the ſouls kept priſoners there do receive help by the ſuffrages of the faithful.

"I do likewiſe believe that the ſaints reigning together with Chriſt are to be worſhipped and prayed unto: and that they do offer up prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

"I do moſt firmly aſſert that the images of Chriſt, of the bleſſed Virgin the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them*.

"I do likewiſe affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Chriſt to the church, and that the uſe of them is very beneficial to Chriſtian people.

"I do acknowledge the holy catholic and apoſtolical Roman church to be the mother and miſtreſs of all churches: and I do promiſe and ſwear true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profeſs all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the ſacred cantons and œcumenical councils, and eſpecially by the holy ſynod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all hereſies condemned, rejected, and anathematiſed by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathematiſe."

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty-eight archbiſhoprics in Italy, but the ſuffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon; the pope creating or ſuppreſſing them as he pleaſes.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily maſtered by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent, the Tuſcan ſtyle and writing is moſt in requeſt.

The Lord's prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro che ſei nel cielo, ſia ſanctificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volontà ſia fatta ſiccome in cielo coſi anche in terra: dacci oggi il noſtro pane cotidiano; e rimettici i noſtri debita, ſiccome noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori; e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciocche tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

* An Engliſh traveller, ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence, in Italy, deſcribes it as follows: "I had occaſion," ſays he, "to ſee a proceſſion where all the nobleſſe of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in ſack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies; but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the croſs; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt."

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] In the introduction we have particularised ſome of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, ſince the revival of learning, ſome Italians have ſhone in controverſial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own perſuaſion. The mathematics and natural philoſophy owe much to Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral other Italians. Strada is an excellent hiſtorian; and the hiſtory of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a ſtandard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as hiſtorians by their ſeveral admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtorian, and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit: and the liberality of his ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the proſe writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the moſt pure and correct in point of ſtyle: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the ſpirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Arioſto, and Taſſo, are the moſt diſtinguiſhed. There are ſaid to be upwards of a thouſand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metaſtaſio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces ſet to muſic. Sannazarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compoſitions not yielding to the claſſics themſelves. Socinus, who was ſo much diſtinguiſhed by his oppoſition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the ſack of Conſtantinople by the Turks, revived taſte likewiſe, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth and beauty in deſign and colouring. Raphael from his own ideas, aſſiſted by the ancients, ſtruck out a new creation with his pencil, and ſtill ſtands at the head of the art of painting. Michael Angelo Buonarotti united in his own perſon painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their ſeveral manners. The ſame may be ſaid of Corelli, and other Italians, in muſic. At preſent Italy cannot juſtly boaſt of any extraordinary genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Thoſe of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa*, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the native country of all that is ſtupendous, great, or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library may be filled by deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor do the bounds of this work admit only of a very brief account of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank, as a ſpecies of the moſt ſtriking magnificence. There are at Rome conſiderable remains of that

* Piſa has forty-ſix profeſſors.

which was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coliſſeo. Twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by Veſpaſian in this building; and it is ſaid to have been capable of containing eighty-ſeven thouſand ſpectators ſeated, and twenty thouſand ſtanding. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are ſo juſt, that it does not appear near ſo large as it really is. But it has been ſtripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its deſtruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farneſe, in particular, robbed it of ſome fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of the outſide caſing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farneſe. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the moſt entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of ſteps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thouſand perſons may be ſeated here at their eaſe, allowing one foot and a half for each perſon. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greateſt care, at the expenſe of the inhabitants. They frequently give public ſpectacles in it, ſuch as horſe-races, combats of wild beaſts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are likewiſe viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, anſwer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at preſent converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are ſtill left ſeveral of the niches which anciently contained the ſtatues of the heathen deities. The outſide of the building is of Tivoli free-ſtone, and within it is incruſted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and porphyry, ſloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a ſtone full of holes. The colonnade in the front, which conſiſts of ſixteen columns of granite, thirty-ſeven feet high, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a ſingle piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain with an antique of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column erected by Duillius in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtrokes of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the original braſs plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, ſome of them tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times; not to mention

medals, and the infinite variety of ſeals and engraved ſtones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the firſt 200 miles, the ſecond 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reſervoirs, bridges, and the like, preſent themſelves all over Italy.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupendous as thoſe above ground: ſuch are the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 50 years ſince a painter's apprentice diſcovered the ancient city of Pæſtum or Poſidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding; for ſo indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new diſcovery to the learned. An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities exiſts in the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almoſt deſtroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the firſt year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. The melted lava in its courſe filled up the ſtreets and houſes in ſome places to the height of ſixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. This lava is now of a conſiſtency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is compoſed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallic, and vitrified ſandy ſubſtances, which altogether form a cloſe and heavy maſs. In the revolution of ſo many ages, the ſpot it ſtood upon was entirely forgotten; but in the year 1713, upon digging into theſe parts, ſome remains of this unfortunate city were diſcovered, and many antiquities were dug out: but the ſearch was afterwards diſcontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but alſo the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then diſcloſed, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a ſtatue of gold, and the inſcription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horſes of the ſame metal, likewiſe gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. There were likewiſe found among the ruins of this city multitudes of ſtatues, buſts, pillars, paintings, manuſcripts, furniture, and various utenſils. The ſtreets of the town appear to have been quite ſtraight and regular, the houſes well built, and much alike; ſome of the rooms paved with moſaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and ſix inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up ſo unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greateſt part of the inhabitants from eſcaping with many of the richeſt effects: for when the excavations were made, there was not more than a dozen ſkeletons found, and but little gold, ſilver, or precious ſtones.

The town of Pompeii was deſtroyed by the ſame eruption of Mount Veſuvius, which occaſioned the deſtruction of Herculaneum; but it was not diſcovered till near forty years after the diſcovery of Herculaneum. One ſtreet, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared; the ſtreet is well paved with the ſame kind of ſtone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow cauſeways are raiſed a foot and a half on each ſide for conveniency of foot paſſengers. Dr. Moore obſerves, that the ſtreet itſelf is not ſo broad as the narroweſt part of the Strand,

and is ſuppoſed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be ſeen on the pavement. The houſes are ſmall, but give an idea of neatneſs and conveniency. The ſtucco on the walls is ſmooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, moſtly ſingle figures, repreſenting ſome animal. They are tolerably well executed, and a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear ſurpriſingly freſh. Moſt of the houſes are built on the ſame plan, and have one ſmall room from the paſſage, which is conjectured to have been the ſhop, with a window to the ſtreet, and a place which ſeems to have been contrived for ſhowing the goods to the greateſt advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonnade towards the court, ſomething in the ſtyle of the Royal Exchange at London, but ſmaller. At a conſiderable diſtance from this, is a temple of the goddeſs Iſis, the pillars of which are of brick, ſtuccoed like thoſe of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The beſt paintings hitherto found at Pompeii, are thoſe of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few ſkeletons were found in the ſtreets of this town, but a conſiderable number in the houſes. In one apartment (ſays Mr. Sutherland), we ſaw the ſkeletons of 17 poor wretches, who were confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, ſome of them in circumſtances which plainly ſhow that they were endeavouring to eſcape when the eruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curioſities in Italy, they are as numerous as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter at Rome is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its hiſtory.

The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo numerous as its artificial. Mount Veſuvius, which is five Italian miles diſtant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for their fiery eruptions. The declivity of Mount Veſuvius towards the ſea, is every-where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome. The ſouth and weſt ſides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and ſtones. The height of Mount Veſuvius has been computed to be 3,900 feet above the ſurface of the ſea. It has been a volcano, beyond the reach of hiſtory or tradition. An animated deſcription of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but ſmall and moderate; then, however, it broke out with accumulated fury, and deſolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it fell at thirty miles diſtance, and a vaſt quantity of liquid lava ran down like a river for three miles diſtance, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned

to be the 27th from that which deſtroyed Herculaneum, in the time of Titus. In this eruption, the aſhes, or rather ſmall cinders, ſhowered down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreets were obliged to uſe umbrellas, or adopt ſome other expedient, to guard themſelves againſt them. The tops of the houſes and the balconies were covered with theſe cinders; and ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great aſtoniſhment of the ſailors. An eruption happened alſo in 1766, another in 1779, which have been particularly deſcribed by Sir William Hamilton in the Philoſophical Tranſactions; and another in June 1794, which laid waſte a conſiderable tract of country, and deſtroyed ſeveral villages, and a great number of habitations. It has been obſerved by a modern traveller, that though Mount Veſuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet, as few things in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produce ſome good, even this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profuſion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Beſides, it is ſuppoſed that, while open and active, the mount is leſs hoſtile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to ceaſe, and its ſtruggles confined to its own bowels, for then might enſue the moſt fatal ſhocks to the unſtable foundation of the whole diſtrict of Terra di Lavoro*.

Mount Ætna is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It ſtands ſeparate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and ſugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees and vines; and the upper part is almoſt the whole year covered with ſnow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: in one of theſe, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were deſtroyed, and there have been ſeveral terrible eruptions ſince that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people periſhed.

Near the lake Agnano and Pozzuolo, there is a valley called Solfatara, becauſe vaſt quantities of ſulphur are continually forced out of the clefts by ſubterranean fires. The grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poiſonous ſteams, and is ſo called from its killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are ſaid to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curioſities of Italy, thoſe vaſt bodies of ſnow and ice, which are called the glaciers of Savoy, deſerve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers which extend almoſt to the plain of the vale of Chamouny, and are ſeparated by wild foreſts, corn-fields, and rich meadows; ſo that immenſe tracts of ice are blended with the

* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ulteriore, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives ſeveral reaſons for believing that they were occaſioned by the operation of a volcano, the ſeat of which lay deeper either under the bottom of the ſea, between Stromboli, and the coaſt of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly obſerved a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as alſo in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or leſs diſtant from this ſuppoſed centre of the evil. One circumſtance he particularly remarked: if two towns were ſituated at an equal diſtance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain or in the bottom, the latter had always ſuffered greatly more by the ſhocks of the earthquakes than the former; ſufficient proof to him of the cauſe coming from beneath, as this muſt naturally have been productive of ſuch an effect.

higheſt cultivation, and perpetually ſucceed to each other, in the moſt ſingular and ſtriking viciſſitudes. All theſe ſeveral valleys of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are ſome leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the higheſt mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of M. de Luc, the height of this mountain above the level of the ſea, is 2391$\frac{1}{4}$ French toiſes, or 15,303 Engliſh feet. "I am convinced," ſays Mr. Coxe, "from the ſituation of Mont Blanc, from the height of the mountains around it, from its ſuperior elevation above them, and its being ſeen at a great diſtance from all ſides, that it is higher than any mountain in Switzerland; which, beyond a doubt, is, next to Mont Blanc, the higheſt ground in Europe."

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION AND CHIEF CITIES. Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian ſtates are not, like the republics of Holland, Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable (for every Italian ſtate has a diſtinct form of government, trade, and intereſts), it will be neceſſary to take a ſeparate view of each, to aſſiſt the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or king of SARDINIA, taking his royal title from that iſland, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, againſt the French; though in the late irruption of the republicans, his guardianſhip has proved of little avail. His capital, Turin, is ſtrongly fortified, and one of the fineſt cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to ſeek their bread all over the world. They are eſteemed a ſimple, but very honeſt people. The king is ſo abſolute, that his revenues conſiſts of what he pleaſes to raiſe upon his ſubjects. His ordinary income, beſides his own family provinces, cannot be leſs than 500,000l. ſterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when aſſiſted by foreign ſubſidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandiſement of his preſent Sardinian majeſty was chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his ſituation, he was eſteemed a natural ally, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, was a moſt formidable ſtate, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almoſt incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very ſtrong, and furniſhed with a magnificent cathedral, in the Gothic taſte, which contains a very rich treaſury, conſiſting chiefly of eccleſiaſtical furniture, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The revenue of the duchy was above 300,000l. annually, which was ſuppoſed might maintain an army of 30,000 men. The French, in the year 1796, over-run this province, and erected what was called the Ciſalpine republic; but on the recommencement of hoſtilities in 1799, the Auſtrians, within a few months, regained the whole.

The republic of GENOA is greatly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a moſt ſuperb city, and contains ſome very magnificent places, particularly thoſe of Doria*, and Durazzo. The

* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468; he was offered the ſovereignty of the ſtate, but refuſed it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which ſtill ſubſiſts; he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plain if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to ſave expenſes. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but ſome writers greatly diminiſh that number), among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix galleys. The common people are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its territory. Near the ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The old government of Genoa was ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobility; the chief perſon was called the doge, or duke; to which dignity no perſon was promoted till he was fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge was choſen, and the former became incapable, during five years, of holding the ſame poſt again. The doge gave audience to ambaſſadors, all orders of government were iſſued in his name, and he was allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

This government has been aboliſhed, by a revolution, under the direction of the French; and the republic of Genoa is now called the LIGURIAN republic. It is governed by a directory, and legiſlative body conſiſting of two councils, one of juniors and one of ancients, the members of which are elected by the fifteen departments into which the territory of the new republic is divided. The total population of theſe departments is eſtimated at about 600,000 ſouls.

VENICE, now a part of the Auſtrian territory, was one of the moſt celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its conſtitution and former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is ſeated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its principal ſtrength. Venice preſerves the veſtiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every reſpect degenerated, except in the paſſion which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mummery during their carnivals. They ſeem to have loſt their ancient taſte for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They had, however, lately ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeemed to be diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the conſtitution of the late republic, it was originally democratical, the magiſtrates being choſen by a general aſſembly of the people, and ſo continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place: doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were inveſted with great power, which they often groſsly abuſed, and ſome of them were aſſaſſinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary nobility was formed; continued and progreſſive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, and a complete ariſtocracy was at length eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility were divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2,500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, had a right to be a member of the grand council. Before the late revolution, theſe elected a doge, or chief magiſtrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which was managed by gold and ſilver balls. The doge was inveſted with great ſtate, and with emblems of ſupreme authority, but had very little power, and was not permitted to ſtir from the city without the permiſſion of the grand council. The government and laws were managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwiſe called the ſignory, was the ſupreme cabinet

council of the ſtate, and alſo the repreſentative of the republic. This court gave audience, and delivered anſwers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambaſſadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It alſo received all requeſts and memorials on ſtate affairs, ſummoned the ſenate at pleaſure, and arranged the buſineſs to be diſcuſſed in that aſſembly. The council often took cogniſance of ſtate crimes, and had the power of ſeizing accuſed perſons, examining them in priſon, and taking their anſwers in writing, with the evidence againſt them. But the tribunal of ſtate inquiſitors, which conſiſted only of three members, and which was in the higheſt degree deſpotic in its manner of proceeding, had the power of deciding, without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian ſtate; the higheſt of the nobility, even the doge himſelf, not being excepted. To theſe three inquiſitors, was given the right of employing ſpies, conſidering ſecret intelligence, iſſuing orders to ſeize all perſons whoſe words or actions they might think reprehenſible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they thought proper. They had keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and could, whenever they pleaſed, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers: and, of courſe, might command acceſs to the houſe of every individual in the ſtate. They continued in office only one year, but were not reſponſible afterwards for their conduct whilſt they were in authority. So much diſtruſt and jealouſy were diſplayed by this government, that the noble Venetians were afraid of having any intercourſe with foreign ambaſſadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and were even cautious of viſiting at each other's houſes.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dreſſed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring from his bucentaur, or ſtage barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility, was intermitted for the firſt time for ſeveral centuries, on Aſcenſion day, 1797, and the bucentaur has ſince been carried away from Venice by the French. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of which are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and, above all, fine looking-glaſſes, all which bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſtate, annually, is ſaid to have amounted to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty-pence of our money. Out of this were defrayed the expenſes of the ſtate, and the pay of the army, which, in the time of peace, conſiſted of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general) and 10,000 militia. They kept up a ſmall fleet for curbing the inſolencies of the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The French have, however, preſſed into their ſervice the ſhips they found there; and likewiſe carried away immenſe quantities of arms and military ſtores from the arſenal.

The Venetians have ſome orders of knighthood, the chief of which are thoſe of the *Stola d'oro*, ſo called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the firſt quality; and the military order of St. Mark; of which in the proper place.

In eccleſiaſtical matters, the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are choſen by the ſenate; and all reli-

gious ſects, even the Mahometan and pagan, excepting proteſtants, are here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amuſements, with an uncommon reliſh for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the ſtreets of Venice, reſembling thoſe tranſmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veroneſe and Titian. The women are of a fine ſtyle of countenance, with expreſſive features, and are of an eaſy addreſs. The common people are remarkably ſober, obliging to ſtrangers, and gentle in their intercourſe with each other. As it is very much the cuſtom to go about in maſks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiouſneſs of manners here than in other places: but this opinion ſeems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of ſtrangers viſit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera-houſes.

The dominions of Venice, before the government of the republic was ſubverted by the French, conſiſted of a conſiderable part of Dalmatia and Iſtria, the iſlands of Corfu, Pachfu, Antipachfu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduaneſe, the peninſula of Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vicenſa and Breſcia, the diſtricts of Bergamo, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. Of theſe Dalmatia, Iſtria, and a great part of the Venetian Terra Firma, were ceded by the French to the emperor, by the late treaty of Campo Formio: the iſlands they retained poſſeſſion of themſelves; but ſeveral of them have ſince been taken by the Turkiſh and Ruſſian fleet.

The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, which is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after being long held by the illuſtrious houſe of Medici, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly, in architecture, literature, and the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often deſcribed; but all deſcription falls ſhort of their contents, ſo that, in every reſpect, it is reckoned, after Rome, the ſecond city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal. The inſcription of its baſe mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other maſterpieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders, in the arts of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and an univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca; and ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry carry on a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar windows, and ſometimes they even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs.—Upon the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopold, afterwards emperor of Germany, to this duchy, a great refor-

mation was introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuſcany could bring into the field, upon occaſion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its revenues were above 500,000l. a year. The other principal towns of Tuſcany are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna: the firſt and laſt are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handſome city, built in the modern taſte, and with ſuch regularity, that both gates are ſeen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, beſides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable proſpect of the ſea, and of many villas on the land ſide. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free acceſs, and many ſettle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are ſaid to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue, and, though ſubject to very heavy impoſts, are in a thriving condition, the greateſt part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, which is a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea, in a moſt delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, ſo that, though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000l. ſterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, eſpecially olives. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuſcany keeps the people of Lucca conſtantly on their guard, in order to preſerve their freedom; for in ſuch a ſituation, a univerſal concord and harmony can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of their darling Liberty, whoſe name they bear on their arms, and whoſe image is not only impreſſed on their coin, but alſo on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is alſo obſervable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in poſſeſſion of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be found among thoſe of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curioſity. Its territories conſiſt of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, whoſe number is not more than 5,000, with the ſmall value of their territory, have preſerved its conſtitution.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guaſtalla, form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy, of its extent. The ſoils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richeſt fruits and paſturages, and contain conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. It is the ſeat of a biſhop's ſee and a univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The preſent duke of * Parma is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have carried with him thither the moſt remarkable pictures and movable curioſities. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy; and it is ſaid that his revenues exceed 100,000l. ſterling a year, a ſum

* Ferdinand, duke of Parma, born Jan. 20, 1751; married to the archduchess Maria-Amelia-Joſepha, June 27, 1769. Their iſſue are, a prince and two princeſſes.

rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The capital is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boaſt that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor, in 1785, this duchy was incorporated with that of Milan into one province, called Auſtrian Lombardy. Mantua was taken by the French after a long ſiege, on the 2d of February 1797, and, by the treaty of Campo Formio, given up to the Ciſalpine republic, the emperor receiving as an equivalent the city and territory of Venice; but, on the renewal of hoſtilities in 1799, it was retaken by the Auſtrians, on the 30th of July.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina), before the late revolutions excited by the French in Italy, was governed by its own duke *, the head of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of Brunſwic deſcended. The duke was abſolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. He was under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, and a vaſſal of the empire.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, is ſituated about the middle of Italy. The ill effects of popiſh tyranny, ſuperſtition, and oppreſſion, are here ſeen in the higheſt perfection. Thoſe ſpots, which under the maſters of the world were formed into ſo many terreſtrial paradiſes, ſurrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious peſtilential marſhes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford, at preſent, of itſelf, but a miſerable ſubſiſtence to about five hundred. Notwithſtanding this, the pope † is a conſiderable temporal prince: and ſome ſuppoſe that his annual revenue amounts to above a million ſterling: other authors calculate it to be much higher. When we ſpeak comparatively, the ſum of a million ſterling is too high a revenue to ariſe from his territorial poſſeſſions: his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that ſum, is now diminiſhed, by the ſuppreſſion of the order of the Jeſuits, from whom he drew vaſt ſupplies, and the meaſures taken by the popiſh powers for preventing the great eccleſiaſtical iſſues of money to Rome. According to the beſt and lateſt accounts, the taxes upon the proviſions and lodgings furniſhed to foreigners, who ſpend immenſe ſums in viſiting his dominions, form now the greateſt part of his accidental revenues. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect.

Modern Rome, which ſtands on Campus Martius, &c. is thirteen miles; and was ſuppoſed in 1787 to contain (according to Mr. Watkins) 160,000 inhabitants. Within its circuit there is a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. It ſtands upon the Tiber, an inconſiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by ſmall boats, barges, and lighters. The caſtle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortreſs, would be

* Hercules-Renaûd, duke of Modena, born Nov. 22, 1727; married, April 16, 1741, to the princeſs of Maſſa Carara. Their iſſue, Mary-Beatrix, born April 29, 1750; married to Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, 1771.

† Pope Pius VI. (formerly count Braſchi) was born at Ceſena, Dec. 27, 1717; created a cardinal in 1773, elected pope Feb. 15, 1775; dethroned by the French Feb. 15, 1798; and died Aug. 19, 1799. Cardinal Chiaramonte, has lately been elected pope at Venice, and taken the title of Pius VII.

found to be of ſmall ſtrength, were it regularly beſieged. The city ſtanding upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. When we conſider Rome as it now ſtands, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itſelf in the magnificence of its ſtructure: nothing in the old city, when miſtreſs of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed, in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utenſils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it muſt be acknowledged that the Pantheon muſt have been an amazing ſtructure. No city, however, in its general appearance, can unite more magnificence and poverty than this, as adjoining the moſt ſuperb palaces we ſee the meaneſt habitations; and temples, the boaſted ornaments of antiquity, choked up by ſheds and cottages. From the drawings of this city Mr. Watkins expected to ſee the ſtreets at leaſt as broad as in London, but was diſappointed. Il Corſo, the principal and moſt admired, is but little wider than St. Martin's-lane; but this mode of building their ſtreets ſo narrow, is done with a view of intercepting, as much as poſſible, the ſun's heat. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we conſider that the ſpirit of travelling is much increaſed ſince that time, we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe them to be diminiſhed at preſent.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has guards, or ſbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates, both eccleſiaſtical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inſpection of his holineſs. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopoliſes all the corn in his territories, and has always a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, was the moſt conſiderable city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government was under a legate *a latere*, who was always a cardinal, and changed every three years. It is now annexed to the Ciſalpine republic. The reſt of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate contains many towns celebrated in ancient hiſtory, and even now exhibiting the moſt ſtriking veſtiges of their flouriſhing ſtate about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at preſent little better than deſolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is ſupported by the toil and ſweat of the neighbouring peaſants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), ANCONA, and many other ſtates and cities illuſtrious in former times, are now to be ſeen only in their ruins and ancient hiſtory. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obſcure ſpot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, became the admiration of the world, for the riches it contained, and the prodigious reſort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion induſtriouſly propagated by the Romiſh clergy, that the houſe in which the Virgin Mary is ſaid to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumſtances, ſuch as that all the trees, on the arrival of the ſacred manſion, bowed with the profoundeſt reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this houſe from being carried to other places, and expoſed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a ſmall apartment, ſe-

parated from the others by a ſilver baluſtrade, which has a gate of the ſame metal. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of ſolid gold, who are here placed on every ſide, were equally enriched with the moſt precious diamonds. To the ſuperſtition of Roman catholic princes Loretto is indebted for this maſs of treaſure. It has been a matter of ſurpriſe, that no attempt has been made by the Turks or Barbary ſtates upon Loretto, eſpecially as it is badly fortified, and ſtands near the ſea; but it is now generally ſuppoſed, that the real treaſure is withdrawn, and metals and ſtones of leſs value ſubſtituted in its place.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the king of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is poſſeſſed of the largeſt dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna-Græcia, and the iſland of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 ſquare miles. They are bounded on all ſides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-eaſt, where Naples terminates on the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. The Apennine runs through it from north to ſouth; and its ſurface is eſtimated at 3,500 ſquare leagues. The air is hot, and the ſoil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called Vino Greco, and Lacrymæ Chriſti, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely ſuperb, and adorned with all the profuſion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the moſt delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Veſuvius, which ſometimes threatens the city with deſtruction, and the ſoil being peſtered with inſects and reptiles, ſome of which are venomous. The houſes in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general are five or ſix ſtories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vaſes, or fruit trees in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the ſtreets are very handſome: no ſtreet in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo, at Naples; and ſtill leſs can any of them be compared with thoſe beautiful ſtreets that lie open to the bay. The richeſt and moſt commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the moſt fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them: and a ſmall part of their revenue is ſpent in feeding the poor, the monks diſtributing bread and ſoup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the proteſtants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majeſty preſents to his holineſs every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples. The preſent revenues of that king amount to above 750,000l. ſterling a year. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniſeeds, wool, oil, wine, cheeſe, fiſh, honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gums, capers, macaroni, ſalt, pot-aſh, flax, cotton, ſilk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and other high-ſounding titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains at leaſt 350,000 inhabitants. Among theſe there are 30,000 lazaroni, or black-guards, the greater part of which have no dwelling-houſes, but ſleep every night in ſummer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of ſhelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which laſts ſeveral weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they

reſort to the caverns under Capo di Monte, where they ſleep in crowds like ſheep in a penfold. Thoſe of them who have wives and children, live in the ſuburbs of Naples, near Poſilipo, in huts, or in caverns, or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fiſhing, others by carrying burthens to and from the ſhipping; many walk about the ſtreets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very ſmall recompenſe. As they do not meet with conſtant employment, their wages are not ſufficient for their maintenance: but the deficiency is in ſome degree ſupplied by the ſoup and bread which are diſtributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is ſo much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among ſome of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are exceſſively fond of ſhow and ſplendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richneſs of their dreſs, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller (Mr. Swinburne) luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic ſtrides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on their heads, as the Spaniſh women do to this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap: but hair plainly dreſt is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of inhabitants, and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aſide. Expenſe and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every ſpot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be ſaid to tread on claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful proſpects. There are ſtill traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries; and the ſcene of action between Hannibal and the Romans is ſtill marked out to poſterity, by the name of *pezzo di ſangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little elſe than its fiſheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of ſteep rocks, that overhang the bay, and, of all the places in the kingdom, has the moſt delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatre, and as the place where Auguſtus Cæſar died, is now hardly worth obſervation.

Brunduſium, now Brindiſi, was the great ſupplier of oyſters for the Roman tables. It has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a ſtate of inactivity and poverty, from which it has not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boaſt of ſo many remains of ancient ſculpture as Benevento: here the arch of Trajan, one of the moſt magnificent remains of Roman grandeur, out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Reggio contains nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was deſtroyed by an earthquake before the Marſian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæſar; part of the wall ſtill remains, and was much damaged by the earthquake in 1783, but not deſtroyed: only 126 perſons loſt their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, the greateſt force of which ſeems to have been exerted near that ſpot, and at Caſal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Trupea to Squillace, moſt of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To aſcertain the extent of the ravages, Sir William Hamilton, who ſurveyed it, gives the following deſcription: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compaſſes on the ſcale of Italian miles,

you were to meaſure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the ſpot on which the earthquake had exerted its greateſt force) form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I juſt ſaid, 22 miles), you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the ſpots where the greateſt mortality has happened, and where there have been the moſt viſible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compaſſes on the ſame ſcale to 72 miles, preſerving the ſame centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

The iſland of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and, conſequently, fertility, is greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually ſeparated from it by the encroachments of the ſea, and the ſhocks of earthquakes, ſo as to become a perfect iſland. The climate of Sicily is ſo hot, that even in the beginning of January the ſhade is refreſhing: and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a ſmall fire is ſufficient to baniſh the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the ſummit of Mount Ætna, where ſnow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preſerving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handſome, and the revenues conſiderable. If this iſland were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many reſpects be a delightful place of reſidence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this iſland are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, and which croſs each other, are very fine. This is ſaid to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expenſe. It carries on a conſiderable trade; as alſo did Meſſina, which, before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant ſtructures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower diſtrict of the city and of the port was deſtroyed, and conſiderable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the ſhape of a creſcent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Meſſina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain; for of 30,000, the ſuppoſed population of the city, only 700 are ſaid to have periſhed. "The greateſt mortality fell upon thoſe towns and countries ſituated in the plain of Calabria Ulteriore, on the weſtern ſide of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Caſal Nuova, the princeſs Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, loſt their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounted to 3017: Radicina and Palmi count their loſs at about 3000 each; Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari ſtill more. The ſum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the ſecretary of ſtate's office at Naples, is 32,367;" but Sir William Hamilton ſays, he has good reaſon to believe, that, including ſtrangers, the number of lives loſt muſt have been conſiderably greater; 40,000 at leaſt may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

The iſland of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles ſouth by weſt of Leghorn, and has ſeven cities

or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is a univerſity, an archbiſhopric, and the ſeat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian majeſty's revenues, from this iſland, do not exceed 5000l. ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fiſhery. Its air is bad, from its marſhes and high mountains on the north, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the houſe of Savoy.

The iſland of CORSICA lies oppoſite to the Genoeſe continent between the gulf of Genoa and the iſland of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble ſtand which the inhabitants made for their liberty againſt their Genoeſe tyrants, and afterwards againſt the baſe and ungenerous efforts of the French to enſlave them, than from any advantages they enjoyed from nature or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome cattle and horſes, and is plentifully ſupplied, both by ſea and rivers, with fiſh. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 120,000. Baſtia, the capital, is a place of ſome ſtrength; though other towns of the iſland that were in poſſeſſion of the malcontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified. In the year 1794 it was taken by the Engliſh, and annexed to the crown of England. A conſtitution was framed for it, a viceroy appointed, and a parliament aſſembled. But it has ſince been retaken by, and ſtill remains in the poſſeſſion of, the French.

CAPRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an iſland to which Auguſtus Cæſar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a ſcene of the moſt infamous pleaſures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects fartheſt into the ſea. It extends four miles in length from Eaſt to Weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſtern part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vaſtly high, and inacceſſible next the ſea; yet Ano-Capri, the largeſt town of the iſland, is ſituated here; and in this part are ſeveral places covered with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long, as the weſtern. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a ſlip of lower ground that runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots that can eaſily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely freſh and beautiful, and afford a moſt delightful little landſcape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is ſituated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the biſhop's palace. In the midſt of this fertile tract riſes a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, ſome remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen. But the moſt conſiderable ruins are at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble proſpect; on one ſide of it the ſea extends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide the bay of Naples.

ISCHIA, and ſome other iſlands on the coaſts of Naples and Italy, having nothing to diſtinguiſh them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful ſummer retreats for their owners. Elba has been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of hiſtory. Virgil and Ariſtotle mention it. Its ſituation is about ten miles ſouth-weſt from Tuſcany, and it is 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants. It is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs, the great duke of Tuſcany, who is

maſter of Porto Ferraio, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the iſland are very good, and the tunnery, fiſheries, and ſalt, produced a good revenue.

LIPARI ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands lie to the north of Sicily, and were anciently called the Æolian iſlands. They are twelve in number, viz. Lipari, Stromboli, Vulcano, Saline, Felicuda, Alicuda, Panaria, Vulcanello, Baſiluzzo, Liſca Bianca, Dattolo, and Fila Navi. They are ſubject to the king of Naples, and produce great quantities of alum, ſulphur, nitre, cinnabar, and moſt kinds of fruits, particularly raiſins, currants, and figs, in great perfection. Some of their wines are much eſteemed, eſpecially the Malvaſia or Malmſey. Great quantities of pumice are exported from Lipari. All theſe iſlands are of volcanic origin, and Stromboli has a conſiderable volcano, which is remarkable for being continually in a ſtate of eruption. The number of inhabitants in Lipari amount to between 9 and 10,000, and thoſe of Stromboli to about 1000; but Vulcano is uninhabited, and ſeveral of the other iſlands are little more than barren rocks.

We ſhall here mention the iſle of MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, and is ſituated in 15 degrees E. long. and 36 degrees N. lat. 60 miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily. It is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. The air is clear, but exceſſively hot: the whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock, covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables. This iſland*, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: they are now known by the diſtinction of the knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-maſter, who is elected for life. The lord prior of the order was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reſide on the iſland, the remainder are in their ſeminaries in other countries, but at any ſummons are to make a perſonal appearance. They had a ſeminary in England, till it was ſuppreſſed by Henry VIII. but they now give to one the title of grand prior of England. They were conſidered as the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks on that ſide. They wear the badge of the order, a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, pendant to a black-watered ribband at the breaſt, and the badge is decorated ſo as to diſtinguiſh the country of the knight. They are generally of noble families, or ſuch as can prove their gentility for ſix deſcents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are ſixteen called the great-croſſes, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marſhal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are choſen. When the great-maſter dies, they ſuffer no veſſel to go out of the iſland till another is choſen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the ſixteen great-croſſes the great-maſter is elected, whoſe title is, "The moſt illuſtrious, and moſt reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great-maſter of the hoſpital of St. John of Jeruſalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights are ſworn to defend the church, to obey their ſuperiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only

* The iſland of Malta is governed by a grand-maſter.

their chief town Valletta, or Malta, and its harbour, but the whole iſland, is ſo well fortified as to be deemed impregnable. On the 18th of September there is an annual proceſſion at Malta in memory of the Turks raiſing the ſiege on that day, 1563, after four months aſſault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

In the beginning of June, 1798, the iſland of Malta was ſurrenderd to the French under Buonaparte, who landed there a body of troops from the fleet then on its paſſage for Egypt.

ARMS AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow: The pope, as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, or, ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in ſaltier. The arms of Tuſcany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three fleurs-de-lis, or. Thoſe of Venice, azure, a lion winged, ſejant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſica; and for ſupporters two griffins, or. The arms of Naples are, azure, ſemée of fleur-de-lis, or, with a label of five points, gules.

The "order of St. *Januarius*" was inſtituted by the late king of Spain, when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights is limited to thirty, and after the preſent ſovereign, that office of the order is to be poſſeſſed by the kings of Naples. All the knights muſt prove the nobility of their deſcent for four centuries, and are to be addreſſed by the title of excellency. St. Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of this order. The "order of *Annunciation*" was inſtituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes againſt the Turks, and won thoſe arms which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy: "gules, a croſs argent." It is counted among the moſt reſpectable orders in Europe: the knight muſt be of a noble family, but alſo a papiſt. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, inſtituted the "order of *St. Lazarus*," and revived and united to it the obſolete order of *St. Maurice*; which was confirmed by the pope, on the condition of maintaining two galleys againſt the Turks.

In the year 828 it is pretended that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice. Accordingly, this ſaint hath been taken for their tutelar ſaint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their enſigns and banners. When the "order of *St. Mark*" was firſt inſtituted is uncertain, but it was an honour conferred by the doge or duke of Venice and the ſenate, on perſons of eminent quality, or who had done ſome ſignal ſervice to the republic. The knights, when made, if preſent, were dubbed with a ſword on their ſhoulders, the duke ſaying "*Eſto miles fidelis*" (be a faithful ſoldier). Abſent perſons were inveſted by letters patent; but their title, "*Knights of St. Mark*," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligation by vows as other orders. About the year 1460, Frederic III. emperor of Germany, inſtituted the "order of *St. George*," and dedicated it to St. George, tutelar ſaint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand-maſter. The badge, a plain croſs enamelled, gules, pendant to a gold chain, and worn about their necks. The croſs is alſo embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Caſimir of Medicis, firſt grand-duke of Tuſcany, inſtituted the "order of *St. Stephen*," in memory of a victory which ſecured to him the ſovereignty of that pro-

vince. He and his ſucceſſors were to be the grand-maſters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houſes are at Piſa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the knights of juſtice and the eccleſiaſtics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four deſcents. They wear a red croſs with right angles, orled or, on the left ſide of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "order of the *Holy Ghoſt*" was founded with their chief ſeat, the hoſpital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand-maſter, and profeſs obedience, chaſtity, and poverty. Their revenue is eſtimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain ſtrangers, relieve the poor, train up deſerted children, &c. Their enſign is a white patriarchal croſs with twelve points, ſewed on their breaſt on the left ſide of a black mantle. The "order of *Jeſus Chriſt*," inſtituted by pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always ſovereign of it, and it was deſigned as a mark of diſtinction for the pope's Italian nobility, but on account of its frequent proſtitution, it has fallen into diſcredit. The "order of the *Golden Spur*" is ſaid to have been inſtituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the "order of Pius," inſtituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are ſuppreſſed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preſerved to themſelves, is the title of counts of the ſacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a ſtar of eight points, white, and between the two bottom points, a ſpur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient hiſtory of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world, under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, ſoon experienced the ſame fate with that of Alexander. Under his ſucceſſors it was in a ſhort time entirely diſmembered. His ſon, Louis the Debonair, ſucceeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandſon of Charlemagne reigned over Italy and the adjacent iſlands. But, Bernard having loſt his life by the cruelty of his uncle, againſt whom he had levied war, and Louis himſelf dying in 840, his dominions were divided among his ſons Lothario, Louis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries ſituated between the Saone and the Rhine; Louis had Germany; and France fell to the ſhare of Charles, the youngeſt of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho the Great re-united Italy to the imperial dominions. Italy afterwards ſuffered much by the conteſts between the popes and the emperors; it was haraſſed by wars and internal diviſions; and at length various principalities and ſtates were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718*.

* Charles Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, king of Sardinia, and duke of Savoy, born May 24, 1751; married, in 1775, to Maria Adelheid, ſiſter to Louis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French.

Brothers and ſiſters of the king.

1. Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, born September 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence, vid. France.
2. Maria-Thereſa, born Jan. 31, 1756; married to the count d'Artois, vid. France.
3. Anna-Maria-Carolina, born Dec. 17, 1757.

The great duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperor of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous diſtinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partiſans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany to put themſelves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines in a ſhort time formed themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the Father of his Country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt-India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. His revenue in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his deſcendents (Coſmo, the great patron of the arts) the title of great-duke of Tuſcany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great-duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain (afterwards emperor, and father of Joſeph II.) in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his ſecond ſon (brother and ſucceſſor to the emperor Joſeph II.) upon the death of his father, became grand-duke. When he ſucceeded to the imperial crown, his ſon Ferdinand entered upon the ſovereignty of the grand-duchy of Tuſcany, who has now ſucceeded his father in the empire of Germany. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade: and ſeveral ſhips of very conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts to prevent the depredations of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which ſeems to be incorporated with their air. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks, eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Auſtrian line was ſo oppreſſive, that it gave riſe to the famous revolt, headed by Maſſaniello, a young fiſherman, without ſhoes or ſtockings, in the year 1647. His ſucceſs was ſo ſurpriſing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before theſe could be re eſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at

4. Victor-Emanuel-Cajetan, duc d'Aoſte, born July 24, 1759; married, April 25, 1789, Maria-Thereſa, niece to the preſent emperor.
5. Maurice-Joſeph-Maria, duc de Montferrat, born September 12, 1762.
6. Maria-Charlotta, born January 17, 1764.
7. Charles-Joſeph, duc de Genevois, born April 6, 1765.
8. Joſeph-Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born October 5, 1766.

the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Auſtrian line opened a new ſcene of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took poſſeſſion of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effuſion of blood was ſtopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at firſt demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his acceſſion to the throne of Spain, in 1759, it being found, by the inſpection of phyſicians, and other trials, that his eldeſt ſon was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his ſecond being heir-apparent to the Spaniſh monarchy, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third ſon, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchеſs of Auſtria*.

The Milaneſe, the faireſt portion of Italy, went through ſeveral hands; the Vicontis were ſucceeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas; but fell at laſt into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon, Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1703, by the imperialiſts. They were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1745; but by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily to the preſent king of Spain, it returned to the houſe of Auſtria, who governed it by a viceroy, till the late conqueſt of it by the French, and the eſtabliſhment of the new Ciſalpine republic, of which it forms the principal part.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who, adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire to the houſe of Auſtria. Guaſtalla was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendents of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen-dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent catholic majeſty, obtained the duchy, and his nephew now holds it, with the duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Conſtantinople itſelf, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. They were more than once brought to the brink of deſtruction, by the confederacies formed againſt them among the other powers of Europe, eſpecially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent; and ſo late as the year 1715

* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third ſon of his late catholic majeſty, the king of Spain, born Jan. 12, 1751, aſcended the throne October 5, 1759; and married, April 7, 1768, to the archduchеſs Maria-Carolina-Louiſa, ſiſter to the late emperor, by whom he has had iſſue 15 children, 10 of whom are living: among whom are,

1. Maria-Thereſa, preſent empreſs of Germany, born June 6, 1771.

2. Thereſa-Clementina, born November 23, 1775; married, September 17, 1790, the archduke Ferdinand.

3. Francis-Januarius, prince-royal, born Auguſt 17, 1777; married Maria-Clementina, the archduchеſs, September, 1790.

they loſt the Morea. In 1797 the French ſeized upon the city of Venice, aboliſhed its government, and ſoon after ceded it by treaty to the emperor, with a conſiderable part of its continental territory.

The Genoeſe for ſome time diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea with the Venetians, but were ſeldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected, by the French and imperialiſts. Their doge, or firſt magiſtrate, uſed to be crowned king of Corſica, though it does not clearly appear by what title. The ſucceſsful effort they made in driving the victorious Auſtrians out of their capital, during the war, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, has few parallels in hiſtory, and ſerves to ſhow the effect of deſpair under oppreſſion. Genoa has lately been revolutioniſed by France, and a new form of republican government eſtabliſhed there.

The hiſtory of the papacy is connected with that of Chriſtendom itſelf. The moſt ſolid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, and heireſs to the greateſt part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his acceſſion in 1073, was ſo well known by the name of Hildebrand). It would be too tedious here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other cauſes that operated to the aggrandiſement of the papacy, previous to the reformation. Even ſince that æra, the ſtate of Europe has been ſuch, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakneſs and bigotry of temporal princes.

The papal power is evidently now nearly extinct. Even before the preſent times, when innovation and revolution have made ſuch rapid ſtrides, the pope was treated by Roman-catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of a temporal principality. In the preſent war, though he acted with conſiderable caution and moderation, he co-operated with the allied powers againſt France: in conſequence of which, the French made an incurſion into his territories, where they met with little reſiſtance, and compelled him to ſign a peace on ſuch terms as they thought proper to dictate. He paid a conſiderable contribution in money; and conſented that ſuch of the moſt valuable ſtatues and pictures in Rome, as commiſſioners appointed for that purpoſe ſhould ſelect, ſhould be carried away, and conveyed to Paris. But about the latter end of December, 1797, a riot happening at Rome, in which the French general Duphot was killed, the French army, under general Berthier, marched againſt that city, entered it without reſiſtance, and, on the 15th of February, 1798, the tree of liberty was planted, the papal government aboliſhed, and the Roman people declared by the French commander to have entered on the rights of ſovereignty, and to conſtitute what was termed the Roman republic. On the 20th of March the new conſtitution was publiſhed, and the government declared to be veſted in five conſuls, compoſing a directory under the direction of the French general as commander in chief, 32 ſenators, correſponding to the council of ancients in France, and 72 tribunes, called the repreſentatives of the people.

The pope remained in Rome when the French entered it, and ſuffered himſelf to be made a priſoner by them. They confined him to his own rooms, and put the ſeal of confiſcation on every thing he had; but in a few days they reſolved that he ſhould be ſent from Rome, and on the morning of the 20th of February he left that city, accompanied by

a body of French cavalry, who eſcorted him to Sienna in Tuſcany; whence, on the 26th of May, he was removed to a Carthuſian convent within two miles of Florence; from which, after the recommencement of hoſtilities with the allies, he was again removed to Grenoble and Valence in France, at which latter town he died on the 19th of Auguſt, 1799. In the beginning of December a conclave was held at Venice, and, on the 13th of March following, cardinal Chiaramonti was elected to the papal chair.

In November, 1798, the king of Naples commenced hoſtilities againſt the French, attacked the new Roman republic, and entered Rome in triumph. But this ſucceſs was quickly followed by a fatal reverſe. The French, collecting their forces, not only ſoon regained Rome, but totally defeated the Neapolitan army, made themſelves maſters of the city of Naples, and compelled its ſovereign to take refuge in the iſland of Sicily. The ſucceſſes which attended the arms of the Auſtrians and Ruſſians in the campaign of 1799, aided by the powerful co-operation of the Engliſh fleet under lord Nelſon, have, however, again expelled the French both from Naples and Rome, though the king of the Two Sicilies has not yet thought it expedient to return to his capital.

The late pope, John Angelo Braſchi, who took upon him the name of Pius VI. was born at Ceſena, December 27, 1717; elected pope February 15, 1775; dethroned by the French, February 15, 1798; and died at Valence, Auguſt 19, 1799.

Gregory Barnabas Chiaramonti, the preſent pope, who has aſſumed the name of Pius VII. was born at Ceſena, Auguſt 14, 1742, and elected pope, at Venice, March 13, 1800.

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# TURKEY.

The GRAND SIGNOR's dominions are divided into

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. TURKEY IN EUROPE. | 960,060 Sq. Miles. |
| 2. TURKEY IN ASIA. | |
| 3. TURKEY IN AFRICA. | |

## TURKEY IN EUROPE.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1000 | between | 17 and 40 Eaſt long. |
| Breadth | 900 | | 36 and 49 North lat. |

Containing 181,400 ſquare miles, with 44 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the North; by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Helleſpont, and Archipelago, on the Eaſt; by the Mediterranean on the South; by the ſame ſea, and the Venetian and Auſtrian territories, on the Weſt.

Plate XIIII

# TURKEY in EUROPE and HUNGARY

POLAND
RUSSIA
GERMANY
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
MOLDAVIA
WALACHIA
BESSARABIA
BUDZIAC TARTARY
LITTLE TARTARY
CRIM TARTARY
TURKEY IN EUROPE
TURKEY IN ASIA
BULGARIA
SERVIA
BOSNIA
CROATIA
SCLAVONIA
THESSALY
EPIRUS
ROMANIA
NATOLIA
CIRCASSIA
BLACK SEA
SEA of AZOPH
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
VENICE
IONIAN SEA
GULF of VENICE
ARCHIPELAGO
CONSTANTINOPLE
The Bosphorus
S. of MARMORA
Dardanelles
Mouths of the Danube
Baba Gulf
Str.ts of Zabache
Kuban R.
Niester R.
Boristhenes R.
Don R.
Volga R.
Samara R.
Kuma R.
Terek R.
Kuban R.
Danube
Save R.
Drave R.
Theiss R.
Marisch R.
Aluta R.
Pruth R.
Sereth R.
Kuban
Kudak
(falls within this Space)
Precop
Belgorod
Oczakow
Bender
Jassy
Galatz
Ismail
Akerman
Kaffa
Arabatzar
Kerch
Taman
Anapa
Asoph
Azof
Terek
Tiflis
Erzerum
Trebizond
Amasreh
Erekli
Simb
Samsoun Bay
Samsoun
C. Jasun
C. Karempi
Nikmid
Burfa
Smyrna
Meander R.
Rhodes I.
Mytylene
Scio
Samos I.
Patmos
Maglan
Gulf of Satalie
C. Chalcedoni
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Tarento
C. Spartivento
C. Leuca
C. Otranto
C. Malapan
C. Grio
C. Xacro
Gaza di Candia
Corfu I.
Zante I.
Cephalonia Ile
St. Maura
Ithaca
Durazzo
Scopia
Salonichi
Constantinople
Adrianople
Philippopoli
Widin
Silistria
Varna
Baba
Hara-kerman
Bucharest
Jassy
Belgrade
Temeswar
Hermanstadt
Clausenburg
Weissenburg
Debreczin
Buda
Peste
Vienna
Presburg
Agria
Comorra
Raab
Schemnitz
Cassaw
Esperies
Unguar
Tokay
Hust
Teisse R.
Zolmar
Holgar
Bistritz
Mediasch
Cronstadt
Kanisha
Segedin
Baja
Essek
Mitrovitz
Semendria
Seraio
Mostar
Ragusa
Durazzo
Petrella
Albanopolis
Ochrida
Castoria
Vodena
Chimera
Larissa
Armiro
Zeitun
Livadia
Thebes
Athens
Patras
Corinth
Argos
Napolin
Modon
Cerigo
Mistra
Tergovist
Floresti
Brunowani
Rusci
Giurgevo
Codrica R.
Razzowa
Floresti
Plaineresti
Ploesti
Rimnico
Pisco
Dorni
Jalomnitza R.
Ismail
Akerman
Kilia
Lapusna
Waslow
Barlad
Falczin
Tecuczi
Putna R.
Sereth R.
Pruth R.
Dniester R.
Niester R.
Boristhenes R.
Don R.
Volga R.
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Tiflis
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Trebizond
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Peste
Vienna
Presburg
Agria
Comorra
Raab
Schemnitz
Cassaw
Esperies
Unguar
Tokay
Hust
Teisse R.
Zolmar
Holgar
Bistritz
Mediasch
Cronstadt
Kanisha
Segedin
Baja
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Mitrovitz
Semendria
Seraio
Mostar
Ragusa
Durazzo
Petrella
Albanopolis
Ochrida
Castoria
Vodena
Chimera
Larissa
Armiro
Zeitun
Livadia
Thebes
Athens
Patras
Corinth
Argos
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Chimera
Larissa
Armiro
Zeitun
Livadia
Thebes
Athens
Patras
Corinth
Argos
Napolin
Modon
Cerigo
Mistra

Hungarian Miles 15 ⅓ to a Degree.
5 10 20 30 40
British Statute Miles.
25 50 100 150 200

East Longitude 18 from London 20 22 24 26 28 30 32 34 36 38

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| On the north coaſt of the Black Sea are the provinces of - | Crim and Little Tartary, and the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus * - - - - - | Precop, Bachiſerai, Kaffa | 26,200 |
| | Budziac Tartary - - | Oczakow - | 12,000 |
| North of the Danube are the provinces of | Beſſarabia - - - | Bender - - Belgorod | 8,000 |
| | Moldavia, olim Dacia - - - - - | Jaſſy, Choczim, Falczin | 26,000 |
| | Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia - - - - | Tergoviſto - | 10,500 |
| South of the Danube are - - - - - | Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia - - - - - | Widdin, Nicopoli, Siliſtria, Scopia | 17,000 |
| | Servia, the weſt part of Myſia - - - | Belgrade, Semendria, Niſſa | 22,570 |
| | Boſnia, part of the ancient Illyricum - | Seraio - - | 8,640 |
| On the Boſporus and Helleſpont - - | Romania, olim Thrace | Conſtantinople, N. l. 41. E. l. 29. 21. 200, Adrianople | |
| South of Mount Rhodope, or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece | Macedonia - - - | Strymon - Conteſſa | 18,980 |
| | Theſſaly, now Janua | Salonichi - Lariſſa | 4,650 |
| | Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia - - | Athens, Thebes, Lepanto | 3,420 |
| On the Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum | Epirus - - - - | Chimæra - - Burtrinto, Scodra | 955 |
| | Albania - - - - | Durazzo - Dulcigno | 6,375 |
| | Dalmatia - - - | Zara - - Narenza | 4,560 |
| | Raguſa Republic † | Raguſa - - | 430 |

* The Ruſſians, in 1783, ſeized the Crimea, the principal part of this diviſion; and by a treaty, ſigned January 9, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them, with the Iſle of Taman, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea.

† The republic of Raguſa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkiſh government. It is an ariſtocratical ſtate, formed nearly

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| In the Morea, the ancient Peloponneſus, being the ſouth diviſion of Greece, are | Corinthia | Corinth | 7,229 |
| | Argos | Argos<br>Napoli di Romania | |
| | Sparta | Lacedæmon, now Miſitra, on the river Eurotas | |
| | Olympia, where the games were held. | Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus | |
| | Arcadia | Modon<br>Coron | |
| | Elis | Patras<br>Elis, or Belvidere on the river Peneus. | |

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] Nature has laviſhed upon the inhabitants of Turkey all her bleſſings in thoſe four particulars. The ſoil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond deſcription. The air is ſalubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unleſs when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanneſs of the Turkiſh manner of living. The ſeaſons are here regular and pleaſant, and have been celebrated from the remoteſt times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholeſomeneſs of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are the moſt celebrated of any in the world, and, at the ſame time, often the moſt fruitful. Mount Athos ſtands on a peninſula, running into the Ægean Sea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, ſeparate Theſſaly from Epirus. Parnaſſus, in Achaia, ſo famous for being conſecrated to the Muſes, is well-known. Mount Hæmus is likewiſe often mentioned by the poets; but moſt of the other mountains have changed their names; witneſs the

after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility and the chief of the republic, who is ſtyled rector, is changed every month, and elected by ſcrutiny or lot. During his ſhort adminiſtration, he lives in the palace and wears a ducal habit. As the Raguſans are unable to protect themſelves, they make uſe of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand ſignor. They endeavour alſo to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring ſtates. But in the year 1783, a diſpute aroſe between them and the king of Naples, reſpecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Raguſan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itſelf under that king's protection. The city of Raguſa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains ſome handſome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was ſituated not far from this city. The Raguſans profeſs the Romiſh religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Almoſt all the citizens are traders, and they keep ſo watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Raguſa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in uſe among the Raguſans is the Sclavonian, but the greateſt part of them ſpeak the Italian. They have many trading veſſels, and are great carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being conſtantly at peace with the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The cities of Gravoſa and Stagno, 50 miles N.E. of Raguſa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are alſo five ſmall iſlands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

mountains Shua, Witoſka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the moſt celebrated mountains above mentioned, have modern names impoſed upon them by the Turks, their new maſters, and others in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine, or Black Sea; the Palus Mæötis, or Sea of Aſoph; the Sea of Marmora, which ſeparates Europe from Aſia; the Archipelago; the Iönian Sea, and the Levant, are ſo many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Conſtantinople ſtands, of all other countries, had the beſt claim to be miſtreſs of the world.

STRAITS.] Thoſe of the Helleſpont and Boſporus are joined to the Sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as in ancient hiſtory. The former, viz. the Helleſpont, or Dardanelles, is only two miles and a half in breadth, and is famous for the paſſage of Xerxes over it, when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition againſt Aſia. The former, for the more eaſy tranſportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is alſo celebrated by the poets in the ſtory of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom, the latter ſwam acroſs it to his miſtreſs, but one night was unhappily drowned. The Boſporus is about the ſame breadth, but has not been ſo much celebrated by hiſtorians and poets.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neiſter, the Dneiper, and the Don, are the beſt known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and hiſtorians.

LAKES.] Theſe are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applauſe, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Scutari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave, and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, ſo famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and the Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx iſſues, conceived by the ancients to be the paſſage into hell.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all ſorts of mines; and its marbles are eſteemed the fineſt in the world.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe are excellent all over the European Turkey, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the ſmalleſt degree of induſtry. Beſides pot and garden herbs of almoſt every kind, this country produces, in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Beſides theſe, many drugs, not common in other parts in Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Theſſalian or Turkiſh horſes are excellent both for their beauty and ſervice. The black cattle are large, eſpecially in Greece. The goats are a moſt valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and fleſh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi furniſh the beſt feathers for arrows for the Turkiſh archers, and they ſell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe: but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Almoſt every ſpot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, preſents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the iſthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Iſthmian games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible. Athens, which contains at preſent above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful

ſource of the moſt magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world; a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work; but it will be proper to mention ſome of the moſt conſiderable. Among the antiquities of this once ſuperb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompaſſed with forty-ſix fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and ſeven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with baſſo relievos, admirably executed, repreſenting the wars of the Athenians. To the ſouth-eaſt of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are ſeventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and baſes. Juſt without the city ſtands the temple of Theſeus, ſurrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order: the portico at the weſt end is adorned with the battle of the Centaurs, in baſſo-relievo; that at the eaſt end appears to be a continuation of the ſame hiſtory: and on the outſide of the porticos, in the ſpaces between the triglyphs, are repreſented the exploits of Theſeus. On the ſouth-weſt of Athens is a beautiful ſtructure, commonly called the Lantern of Demoſthenes: this is a ſmall round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is ſupported by ſix fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high; in the ſpace between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the reſemblance of ſcales: and on the frieze are beautifully repreſented, in relievo, the labours of Hercules. Here are alſo to be ſeen the temple of the Winds, the remains of the theatre of Bacchus, of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian, and of the temples of Jupiter Olympius and Auguſtus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are ſtill viſible at Caſtri, on the ſouth ſide of Mount Parnaſſus, and the marble ſteps that deſcend to a pleaſing running water, ſuppoſed to be the renowned Caſtalian ſpring, with the niches for ſtatues in the rock, are ſtill diſcernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is ſtill a natural curioſity in Livadia, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monte Santo, lies on a peninſula which extends into the Ægean Sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninſula, ſeven Turkiſh miles in length, and three in breadth; but it is only a ſingle mountain that is properly called Athos. This is ſo lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the ſun-riſing was beheld four hours ſooner than by the inhabitants of the coaſt: and, at the ſolſtice, its ſhade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which iſland was diſtant eighty-ſeven miles eaſtward. There are twenty-two convents on Mount Athos, beſides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no leſs than ſix thouſand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorites, or ſuch as live in cells. Theſe Greek monks, who call themſelves the inhabitants of the holy mountains, are ſo far from being a ſet of ſlothful people, that, beſides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, maſons, ſtone-cutters, cloth-workers, tailors, &c. They alſo live a very auſtere life; their uſual food, inſtead of fleſh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheeſe, and, on certain days, Lent excepted, fiſh. Their faſts are many and ſevere; which, with the healthfulneſs of the air, renders longevity ſo common there, that many of them live above a hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the

ſummit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philoſtratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philoſophers uſed to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtleſs built their cells.

CITIES.] Conſtantinople, the capital of this great empire, is ſituated on the European ſide of the Boſporus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, as a more inviting ſituation than Rome, for the ſeat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire; and having eſcaped the deſtructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greateſt as well as the moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the Eaſt Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the cruſaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the cruſades, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment. Conſtantinople is at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world by its ſituation and its port. The proſpect from it is noble. The moſt regular part is the Beſeſtin, incloſed with walls and gates, where the merchants have their ſhops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong ſquare of 400 paces by 100, where they exerciſe on horſeback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large ſpacious ſquare, the general reſort of all ranks. On the oppoſite ſide of the port are four towns, but conſidered as a part of the ſuburbs, their diſtance being ſo ſmall a perſon may eaſily be heard on the other ſide. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera the foreign embaſſadors and all the Franks or ſtrangers reſide, not being permitted to live in the city. Galata alſo is moſtly inhabited by Franks or Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities. The tomb of Conſtantine the Great is ſtill preſerved. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a Chriſtian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed, in grandeur and architecture, St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the ſeraglio ſtanding on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, which is not to be equalled. When we ſpeak of the ſeraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand ſignor's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole incloſure of the Ottoman palace, which might well ſuffice for a moderate town. The wall which ſurrounds the ſeraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embraſures, and towers, in the ſtyle of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of theſe the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public tranſactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Conſtantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is ſurrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but ſhallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land ſide. Some authors have eſtimated it to contain above 800,000 inhabitants, and others 600,000, but, according to Mr. Dallaway, do not exceed 400,000, including the ſuburbs of Galata, Pera, Tophana, and Scutari. Of theſe 200,000 are Turks, 100,000 Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks of all the European nations. The city has frequently ſuffered

great damage by fires, either owing to the narrowneſs of the ſtreets and the ſtructure of the houſes, or the practices of the janiſaries, who, it is ſaid, fire the city as often as they are diſcontented with the government. In Auguſt, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter ſituated towards the harbour, and ſpread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houſes (moſt of which had been rebuilt ſince the fire in 1782) were conſumed.

Oppoſite to the ſeraglio, on the Aſiatic ſide, and about a mile and a half diſtant, acroſs the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal moſque, and a pleaſant houſe of the grand ſignor. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand proſpect, embracing in one view the city of Conſtantinople, the ſuburbs Galata and Pera, the ſmall ſeas of the Boſporus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each ſhore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military ſtrength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, theſe depending on the ſame principles all over the empire, ſhall be mentioned under Turkey in Aſia.

CRIM-TARTARY, or the CRIMEA, is the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus, and is a peninſula, lying on the Euxine, or Black Sea, by which it is bounded on the weſt and ſouth, and on the eaſt and north-eaſt by that of Aſoph. It is between forty-four and forty-ſix degrees north latitude, and thirty-four and thirty-ſeven degrees of eaſt longitude.

This peninſula was eſteemed a part of Turkey in Europe, until it was ceded to Ruſſia, in conſequence of the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the Greeks, particularly thoſe of Cherſon, Theodoſia, Panticapeum, and ſome others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities on the continent.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in the Crimea are thoſe of Karaſu and Salagir, both of which take an eaſterly courſe.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but very ſlight deſcriptions; and indeed where the country has been ſo often the ſeat of war, and the inhabitants are ſtill ſo rude, very little can be expected from their buildings. Lady Craven, now the margravine of Anſpach, who, without doubt, had acceſs to the beſt lodgings in the country, informs us, that "a Tartar's houſe is a very ſlight building, of only one ſtory, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cuſhions are ranged round the room for ſeats; and, what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the ſpace of the room behind the wainſcot, which draws back in moſt places; ſo that in a place where the room appears to be exceedingly ſmall and confined, there is yet every conveniency to be met with."

Among the curioſities in this country, we may reckon the ſource of the river Karuſa, which is ſituated among the rocks, in a very romantic manner, and riſes in a conſiderable ſtream. It was viſited by lady Craven in 1786. No leſs wonderful are thoſe lakes which receive the rivulets without any viſible outlet. This celebrated female traveller mentions a houſe near Sebaſtopol, ſituated in a very romantic manner at the foot of ſome rocks, from which iſſue many clear ſprings that amply ſupply the houſes and baths with water. On the ſummit of theſe rocks there are places through which immenſe cables have certainly paſſed and been tied. The Tartars inſiſt that the ſea was once cloſe to the foot of them, and ſhips were faſtened there. Near Bachiſerai there is a mine of earth, exactly like ſoap, which is reckoned very good for the ſkin, and vaſt quantities of it are conſumed by the women at Conſtantinople. Lady Craven beſtows the greateſt encomium on the ſheep, which in this peninſula are innumerable, and afford the moſt beautiful and coſtly fleeces.

The ſheep are all ſpotted; the lambkins very beautiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their ſkins have ſmall ſpots, and are ſmooth like the fineſt and lighteſt ſattins. Coats lined with theſe ſkins are called peliſſes; and as a great number of theſe ſmall animals muſt be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the fineſt preſents the empreſs can make to an embaſſador.

The peninſula of the Crimea has a conſiderable trade in what is called Morocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like ſatin. At Bachiſerai there is a great trade of ſword-blades, knives, and hangers, many of which are not to be diſtinguiſhed from ſuch as are made at Damaſcus.

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## ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being part of Ancient GREECE.

WE ſhall mention theſe iſlands chiefly for the uſe of ſuch readers as are converſant with ancient hiſtory, of which they make ſo diſtinguiſhed a part.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubœa, ſtretches from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia or Livadia. It is ninety miles long and twenty-five broad, and contains about 1300 ſquare miles. Here the Turkiſh galleys lie. The tides on its coaſts are irregular; and the iſland itſelf is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in ſuch abundance, that all kinds of proviſions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the iſland are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland, on the narroweſt part of the ſtrait; and Caſtel Roſſo, the ancient Caryſtus.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies on the north part of the Ægean Sea or Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of twenty-five miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches ariſe from its mineral earth, much uſed in medicine, ſometimes called *terra Lemnia*, or *terra ſigillata*, becauſe it is ſealed up by the Turks, who receive from it a conſiderable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying oppoſite to old Troy, and being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity. It has a town of the ſame name.

SCYROS is about ſixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about three hundred Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or MITYLENE, is about ſixty miles long, and is famous for the number of philoſophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about eighty miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about one hundred miles in circumference. This iſland, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and about 3,000 Latins. It has 300 churches, beſides chapels and monaſteries; and a Turkiſh garriſon of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of ſilk, velvet, gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The iſland likewiſe produces oil and ſilk, and the lentiſk-tree, or maſtic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almoſt all the other Greek iſlands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their perſons have been the moſt perfect models of ſymmetry to painters and ſtatuaries. A late

learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban; the linen so white and thin, it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and show a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about twenty miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island show a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, now called Dilli, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost mid-way between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHERA, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about fifty miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the southernmost islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One-third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a popish bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the sea for several days, so that, when it arose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano; but the burning soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea; and at the time of its first emerging, it was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased Se-

veral other iſlands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original; but the ſea in their neighbourhood is ſo deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous iſland of RHODES is ſituated in the twenty-eighth degree of eaſt longitude, and thirty-ſix degrees thirty minutes north latitude, about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of the continent of Leſſer Aſia, being about ſixty miles long, and twenty-five broad. This iſland is healthful and pleaſant, and abounds in wine, and many of the neceſſaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town, which alſo bears the name of Rhodes, is ſituated on the ſide of a hill fronting the ſea, and is three miles in circumference, interſperſed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour of Rhodes is the grand ſignor's principal arſenal for ſhipping, and the place is eſteemed among the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the Turks. The coloſſus of braſs, which anciently ſtood at the mouth of the harbour, and was fifty fathoms wide, was deſervedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each ſide of the harbour, ſhips paſſed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-houſe for the direction of mariners. The face of the coloſſus repreſented the ſun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this iſland were formerly maſters of the ſea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, after loſing Paleſtine, took this iſland from the Turks in 1308, but loſt it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is ſtill renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the ſeat of legiſlature to all Greece, and many other hiſtorical and political diſtinctions. It lies between thirty-five and thirty-ſix degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and ſixty broad, almoſt equally diſtant from Europe, Aſia, and Africa, and contains 3,220 ſquare miles. The famous Mount Ida ſtands in the middle of the iſland, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid ſtream. Some of the valleys of this iſland produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kind. The ſiege of Candia, the capital of the iſland, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks inveſted it in the beginning of the year 1645; and its Venetian garriſon, after bravely defending itſelf againſt fifty-ſix aſſaults, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at laſt, an honourable capitulation. The ſiege coſt the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant Sea, about thirty miles diſtant from the coaſts of Syria and Paleſtine. It is one hundred and fifty miles long, and ſeventy broad, and lies at almoſt an equal diſtance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worſhip of Venus, the Cyprian goddeſs; and, during the time of the cruſades, was a rich flouriſhing kingdom, inhabited by Chriſtians. Its wine, eſpecially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the moſt palatable and the richeſt of all that grows in the Greek iſlands. Nicoſia is the capital, in the midſt of the country, and the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop; indeed, moſt part of the inhabitants of the iſland are Greeks. Famaguſta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the iſland is ſo rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping conſuls reſiding upon it; but the oppreſſions of the Turks have depopulated and impoveriſhed it to a ſurpriſing degree, ſo that the revenue

they get from it does not exceed 1250l. year. The iſland produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made; and alſo cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, ſilk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their anceſtors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient ſeat of pleaſure and corruption, is one of the diviſions of the iſland. Richard I. king of England, ſubdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Luſignan, king of Jeruſalem, from whence it paſſed to the Venetians, who ſtill hold that empty honour.

The iſlands in the Ionian ſea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTAMAURA, CORFU, FANNU, and others of ſmaller note, particularly the Iſola del Compare, which would not deſerve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulyſſes. Theſe iſlands, in general, are fruitful, and belonged to the Venetians; but, after the late revolution at Venice, paſſed into the poſſeſſion of the French republic.

ZANTE has a populous capital of the ſame name, and is a place of conſiderable trade, eſpecially in currants, grapes, and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, ſtrong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garriſon of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet, and the iſland of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, moſtly Greeks, and friendly to ſtrangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that iſland, and the reſidence of the governor-general over all the other iſlands, is a place of great ſtrength, and its circumference about four miles. The Venetians are ſaid to have concerned themſelves very little about the welfare or government of theſe iſlands, ſo that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is eſtimated at 50,000, and their manners more ſevere than at Zante.

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# A S I A.

AS Aſia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is alſo ſuperior to them in the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the fragrancy and balſamic qualities of its plants, ſpices, and gums; the ſalubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richneſs of its metals, and the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons. It was in Aſia, according to the ſacred records, that the all-wiſe Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the firſt man and firſt woman, from whom the race of mankind was to ſpring. Aſia became again the nurſery of the world after the deluge, whence the deſcendents of Noah diſperſed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Aſia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accompliſhed by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious goſpel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the known nations by his diſciples and followers. Here the firſt Chriſtian churches were founded, and the Chriſtian faith miraculouſly propagated, and cheriſhed, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Aſia that the firſt edifices were reared, and the firſt empires founded,

Plate XX.

# ASIA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

EUROPEAN RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT
GOVERNMENT OF ORENBURG
GOVERNMENT OF TOBOLSK
OSTIACHS
TUNGUSI
YAKUTSK
TUNGUSIAN TARTARS
TUNGUSIANS or SOLONGIANS
SOONGARIAN
WESTERN TARTARY
KITAYANS
MONGOULS called KALKAS
CASHGUR TARTARY
The Great Desart of Cobi
KALMUCS
THIBET
CHINA
EASTERN TARTARY
MANSHURS
KAMTSCHATKA
Okhotskoi Sea
SEA OF OKHOTSK
Kamtschatka
Beerings I.
Copper I.
Aleutian Isles
Kurile Isles
Jeddo
Gulf of Corea
Bay of Nanking
Liquo I.
Formosa I.
Tropic of Cancer
LADRONE ISLES
PHILIPPINE ISLES
Luconia I. Luzon
Mindanao
Pelew Islands
THE CAROLINAS
NEW GUINEA
New Ireland
New Britain
Solomons I.
Admiralty I.
Celebes Sea
BORNEO
Gulf of Siam
Gulf of Tonquin
COCHIN CHINA
SIAM
PEGU
AVA
HINDOOSTAN
Delhi
Calcutta
Bombay
Madras
Pondicherry
Carnatic
BAY OF BENGAL
Andaman I.
Nicobar Is.
Laccadive Is.
Maldive Islands
Ceylon
Equinoctial Line
Sea of Sumatra
MALACCA
SUMATRA
JAVA
Batavia
Sunda Is.
Straits of Sunda
Straits of Malacca
Straits of Babelmandel
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
ARABIA
PERSIA
TURKOMANIA
GEORGIA
NATOLIA
EGYPT
Mecca
Medina
Muscat
Ormus
Ispahan
Shiraz
Bassora
Aleppo
Damascus
Jerusalem
Cairo
Constantinople
Astrakan
Orenburg
Tobolsk
Yakutsk
Irkutsk
Nova Zembla
Arctic Circle
Tropic of Cancer
Equinoctial Line
AFRICA
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
AMERICA
Bristol Bay
Cape North
Clarke I.
Gulf of Anadir
Anadir R.
Tshukutskoi Noss
St Thadeus Noss
Behring's Straits
Kurile Isles
Aleutian Isles

40 Longitude East from London 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140 150

while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all theſe accounts, this quarter claims a ſuperiority over the reſt; but it muſt be owned that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which has loſt much of its ancient ſplendour; and from the moſt populous and beſt cultivated ſpot in Aſia, is become a wild and uncultivated deſert. The other parts of Aſia continue much in their former condition, the ſoil being as remarkable for its fertility as moſt of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in ſome meaſure heightened by cuſtom and education: and the ſymptoms of it are more or leſs viſible, as the ſeveral nations are ſeated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the ſame latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, ſtrong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robuſt frame of their bodies, among the Chineſe, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the moſt ſouthern regions, is in a great meaſure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanſhip, which our moſt ſkilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vaſt extent of territory was ſucceſſively governed, in paſt times, by the Aſſyrians, the Medes, the Perſians, and the Greeks; but the immenſe regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of thoſe empires, great part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or, as they were uſually called, Saracens, founded in Aſia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extenſive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman, when in its height of power. The Saracen greatneſs ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every ſide, took poſſeſſion of the middle regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy. Beſides the countries poſſeſſed by the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains, at preſent, three large empires, the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the leſſer kingdoms and ſovereignties of Aſia generally depend. The prevailing form of government, in this diviſion of the globe, is abſolute monarchy. If any of its inhabitants can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Aſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how it was poſſible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a deſpotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometaniſm. The Perſian and Indian Mahometans are of the ſect of Ali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their lawgiver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia. Chriſtianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity, by the apoſtles and primitive fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſts of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks; incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and ſufferings of the catholic miſſionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing in a great meaſure to the avarice, cruelty, and injuſtice, of the Europeans, who reſort thither in ſearch of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages ſpoken in Aſia are, the modern Greek, the Turkiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. The European languages are alſo ſpoken upon the coaſts of India and China.

The continent of Aſia is ſituated between twenty-five and 180 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between the equator and eighty degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length from the Dardanelles on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the moſt ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the weſt it is ſeparated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the Sea of Marmora, the Boſporus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, which ſeparates it from America; and on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; ſo that it is almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow:

| | Nations. | Lengt. | Breadt. | Square Miles. | Chief Cities. | Diſt. and bearing fm. Lond. | Diff. of time from London. | Religion. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tartary. | Ruſſian | The bounds of | | 3,050,000 | Tobolſk | 2160 N.E. | 4 10 bef | Ch. & Pag |
| | Chineſe | theſe parts are | | 644,000 | Chynian | 4480 N.E. | 8 4 bef. | Pagans |
| | Mogulean | unlimited, each | | 185,350 | Tibet | 3780 E. | 5 40 bef. | Pagans |
| | Independ. | power puſhing | | 600,060 | Samar. | 2800 E. | | |
| | | on his conqueſts | | | Laſſa | 4310 | 4 36 bef. | Pagans |
| | | as far as he can. | | | | | | |
| | China | 1440 | 1000 | 1,105,000 | Pekin | 4320 S. E. | 7 24 bef. | Pagans |
| | Moguls | 2000 | 1500 | 1,116,000 | Delhi | 3720 S. E. | 5 16 bef. | Mah. & P. |
| | Ind. beyond the Ganges | 2000 | 1000 | 741,500 | Siam Pegu | 5040 S. E. | 1 44 bef. | Pag. & M. |
| | Perſia | 1300 | 1100 | 800,000 | Iſpahan | 2460 S. E. | 3 20 bef. | Mahom. |
| Turkey in Aſia. | Part of Arab. | 1300 | 1200 | 700,000 | Mecca | 2640 S. E. | 2 52 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Syria | 270 | 160 | 29,000 | Aleppo | 1860 S.E. | 2 30 bef. | Ch. & Ma. |
| | Holy Land | 210 | 90 | 7,600 | Jeruſalem | 1920 S.E. | 2 24 bef | Ch. & Ma. |
| | Natolia | 750 | 390 | 195,000 | Burſa, or Smyrna | 1440 S.E. | 1 48 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Diarbeck or Meſopotam. | 240 | 210 | 27,000 | Diarbeck | 2060 S.E. | 2 56 bef | Mahometans with ſome few Chriſtians. |
| | Irac, or Chaldea | 420 | 240 | 50,400 | Bagdad | 2240 S.E. | 3 04 bef | |
| | Turcomania or Armenia | 360 | 300 | 55,000 | Erzerum | 1860 S.E. | 2 44 bef. | |
| | Georgia * | 240 | 180 | 25,600 | Teflis | 1920 E. | 3 10 bef. | |
| | Curdiſtan or Aſſyria | 210 | 205 | 23,900 | Mouſul. | 2220 E. | 3 — bef. | Mahom. |

* Georgia has lately put itſelf under the protection of Ruſſia.

All the islands of Asia (except Cyprus, already described in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian Seas; of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have settlements, are,

| Islands. | Towns. | S. Miles. | Trade with or belong to |
|---|---|---|---|
| The Japanese isles | Jeddo, Meaco | 138,000 | Dutch |
| The Ladrones | Guam | ..... | Spain |
| Formosa | Tai-ouan-fou | 17,000 | China |
| Anian | Kiontcheow | 11,900 | China |
| The Philippines | Manilla | 133,700 | Spain |
| The Molucca, or Clove isles | Victoria Fort, Ternate | ..... | Dutch |
| The Banda, or Nutmeg isles | Lantor | ..... | Dutch |
| Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. (surrounding the Molucca & Banda isles) | Amboyna | 400 | Dutch |
| | Macaffer | 68,400 | Dutch |
| | Gilolo | 10,400 | Dutch |
| The Sunda isles: Borneo | Borneo, Caytongee | 228,000 | All Nations |
| The Sunda isles: Sumatra | Achen, Bencoolen | 129,000 | English and Dutch |
| The Sunda isles: Java, &c. | Batavia, Bantam | 38,250 | Dutch |
| The Andaman & Nicobar isles | Andaman, Nicobar | ..... | All Nations |
| Ceylon | Candy | 27,730 | Dutch |
| The Maldives | Caridon | ..... | All Nations |
| Bombay | Bombay | ..... | English |
| The Kurile isles, and those in the Sea of Kamtschatka, lately discovered by the Russians | | | Russia. |

# TURKEY IN ASIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles | | Degrees | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length, 1000<br>Breadth, 800 | between | 27 and 46 East longitude.<br>28 and 45 North latitude. | 520,820. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia on the North; by Persia on the East; by Arabia and the Levant Sea on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the West.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The eastern provinces are | 1. Irac Arabia, or Chaldea, | Bassorah and Bagdad. |
| | 2. Diarbec, or Mesopotamia, | Diarbec, Orfa, &c. |
| | 3. Curdistan, or Assyria, | Mousul and Betlis. |
| | 4. Turcomania, or Armenia, | Erzerum and Van. |
| | 5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia | Teflis, Armarchia, & Genie; Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus. |
| Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west. | 1. Natolia Proper | Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope. |
| | 2. Amasia | |
| | 3. Aladulia | Ajazzo and Marat. |
| | 4. Caramania | Satalia and Terasso. |
| East of the Levant Sea. | Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land. | Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, Jerusalem. |

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are famous in ſacred as well as profane writings. The moſt remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus, and Anti-taurus; Caucaſus and Ararat; Lebanon and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The ſame may be obſerved of the rivers, which are the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontes, Mæander, Sarabat, Kara, and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmoſt degree, and naturally ſalubrious to the human conſtitution, yet ſuch is the equality with which the Author of Nature has diſpenſed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Aſia, is often viſited by the plague; a frightful ſcourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly deſtructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their ſuperſtitious belief in a predeſtination, which prevents them from uſing the proper precautions to defend themſelves againſt this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the moſt fertile provinces of Aſia, it is ſcarcely neceſſary to inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmoſt abundance, notwithſtanding the indolence of its owners. Raw ſilk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every ſpecies, coffee, myrrh, frankincenſe, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almoſt without culture, which is practiſed chiefly by Greek and Armenian Chriſtians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in theſe provinces, are highly delicious, and in ſuch plenty, that they coſt the inhabitants a mere trifle, and, it is ſaid, in ſome places nothing. Their aſparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed thoſe of other countries in largeneſs. In ſhort, nature has brought all her productions here to the higheſt perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } The ſame may be ſaid of their animals. The breed of the Turkiſh and Arabian horſes, the latter eſpecially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have conſiderably improved that of the Engliſh. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to theſe countries, but they contain all that are neceſſary for the uſe of mankind. Camels are here in much requeſt, from their ſtrength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camel's hair and ſilk, though it is now often made with wool and ſilk. Their kids and ſheep are exquiſite eating, and are ſaid to ſurpaſs, in flavour and taſte, thoſe of Europe; but their butchers' meat in general, beef particularly, is not ſo fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in great perfection: their oſtriches are well known by their tallneſs, ſwiftneſs in running, and ſtupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fiſh, except lampreys, mullets, and oyſters, but thoſe that were found in Aſia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richeſt kingdoms and provinces in Europe; and its medicinal ſprings and baths exceed thoſe of any in the known world.

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## OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } THE population of this great country is by no means equal, either in its extent or fertility, nor have the beſt geographers been able to aſcertain it, becauſe of the uncertainty of its

limits. It certainly is not ſo great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various cauſes, and, above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly very unfavourable to population, as may be evinced from many reaſons; and particularly, becauſe the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cauſe of depopulation. The Turkiſh emperor, however, has more ſubjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robuſt men: in youth, their complexions are fair, and their faces handſome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handſome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, ſedate, and paſſive; but when agitated by paſſion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe. Though the generality ſeem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity, with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of ſocial affections for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme good; and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, conſanguinity, or friendſhip, are with the generality, ſpeedily diſſolved. The morals of the Aſiatic Turks are far preferable to thoſe of the European. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and the vices of avarice and humanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewiſe ſaid to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view they ſearch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats, not only at their meals, but in company. Their ideas are ſimple and confined, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes, where they ſit converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate of their own or any other country. If a viſier, baſhaw, or other officer, is turned out, or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion than that there will be a new viſier or governor, ſeldom inquiring into the reaſon of the diſgrace of the former miniſter. They are perfect ſtrangers to wit and agreeable converſation. They have few printed books, and ſeldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without preſents; and here juſtice may commonly be bought and ſold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and ſup at five in the winter, and ſix in the ſummer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high ſeaſoned. Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, and ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags; and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is high ſeaſoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them ſenſa-

tions reſembling thoſe of intoxication. Gueſts of high rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave of the family. They are temperate and ſober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine; though in private many of them indulge themſelves in ſtrong liquors. Their common ſalutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breaſt. They ſleep in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, upon mattreſſes, and cover themſelves with a quilt. Few or none of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diverſion. The moſt religious among them find, however, ſufficient exerciſe when they conform themſelves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites preſcribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diverſions conſiſt in ſhooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purpoſes, that they may know the ſtrength of their dependents. Within doors, the cheſs or draught-board are their uſual amuſements; and if they play at chance games, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

DRESS.] The men ſhave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they ſleep. Their ſhirts are without collar, or wriſtband, and over them they throw a long veſt, which they tie with a ſaſh, and over the veſt they wear a looſe gown ſomewhat ſhorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their ſtockings; and inſtead of ſhoes they wear ſlippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or houſe. They ſuffer no Chriſtians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear ſtiffened caps upon their heads, with horns ſomething like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are ſo muffled up as not to be known by their neareſt relation. Such of the women as are virtuous, make no uſe of paint to heighten their beauty, or to diſguiſe their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make uſe of the ſame expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a ſum of money, a licenſe is taken out from the cadi, or proper magiſtrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furniſhing the houſe of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. The wealthy Turks, therefore, beſides their wives, keep a number of women in their harams, or, as they are improperly called in Europe, their ſeraglios. But all theſe indulgences are ſometimes inſufficient to reſtrain their unnatural deſires.

FUNERALS.] The burial of the Turks are decent. The corpſe is attended by the relations, chanting paſſages from the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque (for ſo they call their temples), they are buried in a field by the iman or prieſt, who pronounces a funeral ſermon at the time of the interment. The male relations expreſs their ſorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and, in mourning for a huſband, they wear a particular head-dreſs, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion is the Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet, the author of it, ſome account of whom the reader will find in the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that impoſtor. The Turks profeſs to be of the ſect of Omar; but theſe are ſplit into as many ſectaries as their neighbours the Chriſtians. There is no ordination among their clergy; any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleaſes. Their chief prieſt, or mufti, ſeems to have great power in the ſtate.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS, AND RESTRICTIONS OF CHRISTIANS.] The Turkiſh government having formed theſe into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are moſt profitable; but the hardſhips impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch as muſt always diſpoſe that people to favour any revolution of government. Conſtantinople, Jeruſalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may be ſaid of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege, has its archbiſhop or biſhop. All male Chriſtians pay alſo a capitation tax from ſeventeen years old to ſixty, according to their ſtations.

The inſulting diſtinction of Chriſtian and Mahometan (ſays Mr. Eton), is carried to ſo great a length, that even the minutiæ of dreſs are rendered ſubjects of reſtriction. A Chriſtian muſt wear only clothes and head-dreſſes of dark colours, and ſuch as Turks never wear, with ſlippers of black leather, and muſt paint his houſe black, or dark brown. The leaſt violation of theſe frivolous and diſguſting regulations is puniſhed with death. Nor is it at all uncommon for a Chriſtian to have his head ſtruck off in the ſtreet, for indulging in a little more foppery of dreſs than the ſultan or viſier, whom he may meet incognito, approves. If a Chriſtian ſtrikes a Mahometan, he is moſt commonly put to death on the ſpot, or at leaſt ruined by fines and ſeverely baſtinadoed; and if he ſtrikes, though by accident, a ſherif, or deſcendant of Mahomet, who wears the green turban, of whom there are thouſands in ſome cities, it is death without remiſſion.

The Turkiſh language is derived from the Zagutai, a dialect of the Tartarian. It is the eaſieſt of any we are acquainted with, becauſe it is the moſt regular. It has only one conjugation of verbs, one declenſion of nouns, and no gender. There is no exception nor any irregular verb or noun in the language. It is not very copious, yet it is manly, energetic, and ſonorous. To ſupply the want of words, their writers frequently mix with it the Arabic and Perſian. The Greeks ſpeak a moderniſed Greek, and in the Aſiatic provinces the Arabic and a dialect of the Syriac is ſpoken. A ſpecimen of the modern Greek follows in their paternoſter:

*Pater hemas, opios iſo ees tos ouranous: hagiaſthito to onoma ſou: na erti he baſilia ſou: to thelema ſou na genetez itzon eu to ge, os is ton ouranon: to ptſomi hemas doze hemas ſemoren; kæ ſichoraſe hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, kæ hemas ſichoraſomen ekinous opou hemas adikoun: kæ meu ternes hemas is to piraſmo, alla ſoſon hemas apo to kako.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks till of late profeſſed a ſovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, beſides Turks, numerous bands of Chriſtian biſhops, prieſts, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are divided into various

abſurd ſects of what they call Chriſtianity. The education of the Turks ſeldom extends farther than reading the Turkiſh language, and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Their juriſprudence and theology conſiſt only of commentaries on the Koran; their aſtronomy is aſtrology, and their chemiſtry alchemy; of the hiſtory and geography of other countries they are perfectly ignorant. Some of them underſtand aſtronomy, ſo far as to calculate the time of an eclipſe; but the number of theſe being very ſmall, they are looked upon as extraordinary perſons.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Theſe are ſo various, that they have furniſhed matter for many voluminous publications. Theſe countries contained all that was rich and magnificent, in architecture and ſculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have ſuffered from the Europeans, ſeem to have diminiſhed their number. They are more or leſs perfect, according to the air, ſoil, or climate, in which they ſtand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the fineſt temples are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than thoſe which remain in ruins. Amidſt ſuch a vaſt variety of curioſities, we ſhall ſelect ſome of the moſt ſtriking.

Balbec is ſituated on a riſing plain, between Tripoli, in Syria, and Damaſcus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cœlo-Syria. Its remains of antiquity diſplay, according to the beſt judges, the boldeſt plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpreſſibly ſuperb, though disfigured by two Turkiſh towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilaſters and ſtatues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the ſame taſte and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now ſo ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, ſupported by nine lofty columns, each conſiſting of three pieces, joined together by iron pins, without cement. Some of thoſe pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the ſordid Turks are daily at work to deſtroy the columns for the ſake of the iron. A ſmall temple is ſtill ſtanding, with a pedeſtal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every-where richly ornamented with figures in alto-relievo, and the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. To the weſt of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkiſh moſques and houſes. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and ſtupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of theſe immenſe buildings. The inhabitants of Aſia aſcribe them to Solomon, but ſome make them ſo modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his ſucceſſors may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the boldneſs of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the ſtupendous execution of the whole, ſeem to fix their foundation to a period before the Chriſtian æra, though we cannot refer them to the ancient times of the Jews, or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek ſtyle in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at preſent a little city encompaſſed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houſes built out of the ancient ruins. A free-ſtone quarry in the neighbourhood furniſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple; and one of the ſtones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad,

and 14 feet five inches deep: its weight muſt be 1135 tons. A coarſe white marble quarry, at a greater diſtance, furniſhed the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the deſert, is ſituated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, in about 33 deg. of N. lat. and 200 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and opening all at once, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtriking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the acceſs to it is through a vaſt number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and publiſhed by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, viſited it ſome years ago, purpoſely to preſerve ſome remembrance of ſuch a curioſity. As thoſe drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we muſt refer the reader to them, eſpecially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fine porticos, periſtyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the higheſt ſtyle, and finiſhed with the moſt beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but ſo diſperſed and disjointed, that it is impoſſible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Theſe ſtriking ruins are contraſted by the miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuperb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable ſands. Nothing however is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom, that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the weſtern nations, for the merchandiſes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent altered ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſes, which have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſerts. The Aſiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. In profane hiſtory it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Antony; and its moſt ſuperb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus: Odenathus, the laſt king of Palmyra, was highly careſſed by that emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. His widow, Zenobia, reigned in great glory for ſome time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her ſecretary. Unwilling to ſubmit to the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, who took her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and, among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majeſtic ruins of which have been mentioned. None of the Palmyrene inſcriptions reach above the Chriſtian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its ancient ſplendor, but without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its preſent wretched ſtate. It has been obſerved, very juſtly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to thoſe of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boaſted antiquities ſhown by the Greek and Armenian prieſts in and near Jeruſalem, which is well known

to have been ſo often raſed to the ground, and re-built anew, that no ſcene of our Saviour's life and ſufferings can be aſcertained; and yet thoſe eccleſiaſtics ſubſiſt by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament. They are, it is true, under ſevere contributions to the Turks, but the trade ſtill goes on, though much diminiſhed in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, ſaid to be built by Helena, mother to Conſtantine the Great, is ſtill ſtanding, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different diviſions, and the diſpoſitions made round it, are chiefly calculated to ſupport the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches built by the ſame lady are found in Paleſtine; but the country is ſo altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the moſt deſpicable of any in Aſia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any veſtiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But the moſt fertile country, abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, muſt in time become a deſert. Thus oppreſſion ſoon thinned the delicious plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece and Aſia the Leſs, once the glory of the world, are now nearly deſtitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curioſities only through the ſuperſtition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houſes or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a mean appearance, though erected on the ſpot where the great prophet is ſaid to have been born. The ſame may be ſaid of the moſque at Medina, where that impoſtor was buried; ſo that the vaſt ſums ſpent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in viſiting thoſe places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uſes. Between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where ſome ſtuperſtitious and viſionary people have ſought the ſituation of Paradiſe, there are ſome tracts which undoubtedly deſerve that name. The different ruins, ſome of them inexpreſſibly magnificent, that are to be found in thoſe immenſe regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; ſo great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for theſe thouſand years paſt. It is, indeed, eaſy to pronounce whether the ſtyle of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen: but all other information muſt come from their inſcriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Iſmir) contains many valuable antiquities. The ſame may be ſaid of Aleppo, and a number of other places, celebrated in antiquity. The ſite of old Troy cannot be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmalleſt veſtige, and is known only by its being oppoſite to the iſle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble, built in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar, at Milaſſo, in Caria, and a few ſtructures of the ſame kind in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are ſtill entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latakia, have ſuffered very little from time or barbariſm; and ſome travellers think they diſcern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Epheſus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. } Theſe are very numerous, and, at the ſame time, very inſignificant, becauſe they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon ſtands upon the ſite of Old Alexandria, but it is now almoſt depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preſerves a reſpectable rank among the cities of the Aſiatic Turkey. It is ſtill the capital of Syria,

and is ſuperior in its buildings and conveniences to moſt of the Turkiſh cities. The houſes, as uſual in the eaſt, conſiſt of a large court, with a dead wall to the ſtreet, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the ſame in the middle. Aleppo, and its ſuburbs, are ſeven miles in compaſs, ſtanding on eight ſmall hills, on the higheſt of which the citadel, or caſtle, is erected, but of no great ſtrength. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, ſurround the city, which was eſtimated by the late Dr. Ruſſel to contain 230,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 were Chriſtians and 5,000 Jews; but at preſent, according to Mr. Eton, it does not contain more than 50,000, which depopulation has chiefly taken place ſince 1770. Whole ſtreets are uninhabited, and bazars abandoned. It is furniſhed with moſt of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is ſupplied with an aqueduct, diſtant about four miles, ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena. The ſtreets are narrow, but well paved with large ſquare ſtones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleaſant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and piſtachio trees: but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and tranſact their buſineſs in caravanſeras, or large ſquare buildings, containing their warehouſes, lodging-rooms, and compting-houſes. This city abounds in neat, and ſome of them magnificent moſques, public bagnios, which are very refreſhing, and bazars or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched, or covered ſtreets, with little ſhops, as in other parts of the eaſt. Their coffee is excellent, and conſidered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their ſweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater ſplendor and ſafety than in any other city of the Turkiſh empire, in conſequence of particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not uſed here, but perſons of quality ride on horſeback, with a number of ſervants before them, according to their rank. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have conſuls, who are much reſpected, and appear abroad, the Engliſh eſpecially, with marks of diſtinction.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is ſuppoſed, from the ſite of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular ſquare, and rudely fortified; but the conveniency of its ſituation renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and it has ſtill a conſiderable trade, being annually viſited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and weſtern caravans. The houſes of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the free circulation of the air; many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glaſs, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Moſt of the houſes have alſo a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a ſmall plantation of orange-trees. The number of houſes is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the baſhaw, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. ſterling. Their bazars, in which their tradeſmen have their ſhops, are tolerably handſome, large, and extenſive, filled with ſhops of all kinds of merchandiſe, to the number of 12,000. Theſe were erected by the Perſians, when they were in poſſeſſion of the place, as were alſo their bagnios, and almoſt every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. The population of Bagdad has, however, greatly declined within theſe few years. The plague of 1773 carried off two-thirds of the inhabitants, who now ſcarcely amount to 20,000; for here, as at Aleppo, whole ſtreets and bazars are deſolate. In this city are

five moſques, two of which are well built, and have handſome domes, covered with varniſhed tiles of ſeveral colours. Two chapels are permitted for thoſe of the Romiſh and Greek perſuaſions. On the north-weſt corner of the city ſtands the caſtle, which is of white ſtone, and commands the river, conſiſting of curtains and baſtions, on which ſome large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each baſtion; but in the year 1779 they were ſo honey-combed and bad, as to be ſuppoſed not to ſupport one firing. Below the caſtle, by the water-ſide, is the palace of the Turkiſh governor; and there are ſeveral ſummer-houſes in the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited this city under the caliphs were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Aſſyria is now called the Turkiſh Curdiſtan, though part of it is ſubject to the Perſians. The capital is Curdiſtan, the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdiſtan is ſaid to be for the moſt part cut out of a mountain, and is the reſidence of a viceroy, or begler-beg. Orfar, formerly Edeſſa, is the capital of the fine province of Meſopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly ſupported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mouſul is alſo in the ſame province, a large place, ſituated on the weſt ſhore of the Tigris, oppoſite where Nineveh formerly ſtood.

Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, now no longer ſubject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Chriſtians. The natives of this country are a brave warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handſome city, and makes a fine appearance; all the houſes are of ſtone, neat and clean, with flat roofs, which ſerve as walks for the women, but the ſtreets are dirty and narrow; its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, by the ſide of the river Kur, and is ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, except on the ſide of the river. It has a large fortreſs on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garriſon conſiſts of native Perſians. There are thirteen Greek churches in Teflis, ſeven Armenian, and one Roman-catholic church; the Mahometans who are here have no moſques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleaſant houſes, and fine gardens. The Georgians, in general, are, by ſome travellers, ſaid to be the handſomeſt people in the world; and ſome think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox. They make no ſcruple of ſelling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many diſtinguiſhing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Ruſſia, under the brave prince Heraclius; as has the czar or prince Solomon, ſovereign of Immeretta, a diſtrict between the Caſpian and Black Seas, who is diſtinguiſhed from his ſubjects (all of the Greek religion) by riding on an aſs, and wearing boots.

The ancient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ſtill retain part of their former trade. Damaſcus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpreſſibly beautiful. It contains a fine moſque, which was formerly a Chriſtian church. It ſtill is famous for its ſteel works, ſuch as ſword-blades, knives, and the like, the excellent temper of which is ſaid to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture alſo thoſe beautiful ſilks, called damaſks, from their city, and carry on a conſiderable traffic in raw and worked ſilk, roſe-water, extracted from the famous damaſk roſes, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is ſtill beautiful, eſpecially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewiſe lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has ſtill ſome trade, and a tolerable harbour.

Tyre, now called Sur, about twenty miles diſtant from Sidon, ſo famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by ſcarcely any but a few miſerable fiſhermen, who live among the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are ſtrong walls on the land ſide, of ſtone, eighteen feet high, and ſeven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half, and Chriſtians and Mahometans make up the number of about five hundred. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are ſtill viſible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us, he ſaw, and obſerves that they were ſeven feet and a half lower than the ground upon which the preſent city ſtands. Paſſing by Tyre (ſays our author, who deſerves much praiſe for ſome happy elucidations of ſcripture), I came to be a mournful witneſs of the truth of that prophecy, 'That Tyre, Queen of Nations, ſhould be a rock for fiſhers to dry their nets on *.' Two wretched fiſhermen, with miſerable nets, having juſt given over their occupation, with very little ſucceſs, I engaged them, at the expenſe of their nets, to drag in thoſe places where they ſaid ſhell-fiſh might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple fiſh. I did not ſucceed; but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fiſhers had ever been. The purple fiſh at Tyre ſeems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon the fiſh for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing elſe but fiſhing, they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year †.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amaſia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſtory, are now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, or a theatre of ruins. The ſites of ancient cities are ſtill diſcernible; and ſo luxurious is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs over her forlorn condition. The ſelfiſh Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themſelves, and their gardens and ſummer-houſes fill up the circuit of their moſt flouriſhing cities. The moſt judicious travellers, upon an attentive ſurvey of thoſe countries, fully vindicate all that has been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers of their beauty, ſtrength, fertility, and population. Even Paleſtine and Judæa, the moſt deſpicable at preſent of all thoſe countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own ſoil. The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting it in the moſt gloomy colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concerning it, which, being artfully propagated by ſome among ourſelves, have impoſed upon weak Chriſtians ‡.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe objects are little attended to in the Turkiſh dominions. The nature of the government deſtroys

* Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.

† Bruce's Travels, vol. I. Introduction, p. lix.

‡ The late reverend Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the ſoundeſt philoſophy to make the moſt juſt obſervations, ſays, that, were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing conſidered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenneſs, (ſays he,) of which ſome authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but from the want of the inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this fine country. Indeed, the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Paleſtine," ſays Mr. Wood, "we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed." And, after all, whoever ſows is uncertain whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

that happy ſecurity which is the mother of arts, induſtry, and commerce; and ſuch is the debaſement of the human mind, when borne down by tyranny and oppreſſion, that all the great advantages of commerce, which nature has, as it were, thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their ſituation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all thoſe countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. The Turks command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the ſouthern ocean, and preſents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, muſt admire the ſituation of their capital, upon a narrow ſtrait that ſeparates Europe from Aſia, and communicates on the ſouth with the Mediterranean Sea, thereby opening a paſſage to all the European nations, as well as the coaſt of Africa. The ſame ſtrait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a paſſage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Ruſſia.

In this extenſive empire, where all the commodities neceſſary for the largeſt plan of induſtry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themſelves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and ſoap. The moſt valuable of their commodities, ſuch as ſilk, a variety of drugs, and dyeing ſtuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value for their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely ſmall, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe, the Turks are altogether paſſive. The Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, reſort hither with their commodities, and bring back thoſe of Turkey in the ſame bottoms. They ſeldom attempt any diſtant voyages, and are poſſeſſed of only a few coaſting veſſels in the Aſiatic Turkey, their chief royal navy lying on the ſide of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the beſt ſecurity to their government. The balance of power eſtabliſhed among the princes of Europe, and their jealouſies of one another, ſecure to the Turks the poſſeſſion of countries which, in the hands of the Ruſſians, or any active ſtate, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, eſpecially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkiſh government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is ſhocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the accounts of Sir James Porter, who reſided at the Porte, in quality of embaſſador from his Britannic majeſty, it appears that the rigours of that deſpotic government are conſiderably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary ſucceſſion to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and ſecure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconſiderable expenſe. Even Jews and Chriſtians may in this manner ſecure the enjoyment of their lands to the lateſt poſterity; and ſo ſacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no inſtance of an attempt on the ſide of the prince to treſpaſs or reverſe it. Neither does the obſervance of this inſtitution altogether depend on the ſuperſtition of the ſultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it would ſhake the foundations of his throne, which is ſolely ſupported by the laws of religion. Were he to tranſgreſs theſe laws, he would become an infidel, and ceaſe to be the lawful ſovereign. The ſame obſervation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was deſigned by Mahomet both as a political code and as a religious ſyſtem. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to ſupport them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Maho-

metans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obſcure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the firſt inſtitutions of the prophet: and no member of the ſociety, however powerful, can tranſgreſs them without cenſure, or violate them without puniſhment.

The Aſiatic Turks, or rather ſubjects of the Turkiſh empire, who hold their poſſeſſions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their ſerving in the field with a particular number of men, think themſelves, while they perform that agreement, almoſt independent of the emperor, who ſeldom calls for the head or the eſtate of a ſubject who is not an immediate ſervant of the court. The moſt unhappy ſubjects of the Turkiſh government are thoſe who approach the higheſt dignities of ſtate, and whoſe fortunes are conſtantly expoſed to ſudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their maſter. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the viſier, or prime miniſter; the kiaja, ſecond in power to the viſier; the reis-effendi, or ſecretary of ſtate; and the aga of the janiſaries, are the moſt conſiderable. Theſe, as well as the mufti, or high prieſt, the paſhas, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raiſed, by their application and aſſiduity, from the meaneſt ſtations in life, and are often the children of Tartar or Chriſtian ſlaves taken in war. Tutored in the ſchool of adverſity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thouſand difficulties and dangers, theſe men are generally as diſtinguiſhed for abilities as deficient in virtue. They poſſeſs all the diſſimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in a humble rank; and they have a farther reaſon for plundering the people, becauſe they are uncertain how long they may poſſeſs the dignities to which they have attained. The adminiſtration of juſtice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire muſt be immenſe. The revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Chriſtians, and other ſubjects, not of the Mahometan religion. The rich pay a capitation tax of thirty ſhillings a year; tradeſmen fifteen ſhillings, and common labourers ſix ſhillings and ten-pence halfpenny. Another branch of the revenue ariſes from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. Theſe form what are called the *miri*, and amount to about four millions and a half ſterling. All theſe, however, are trifling, when compared with the vaſt ſums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of ſtate, under the name of *preſents*. Theſe harpies, to indemnify themſelves, as we have already obſerved, exerciſe every ſpecies of oppreſſion that their avarice can ſuggeſt, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are ſent to govern, their riches frequently give riſe to a pretended ſuſpicion of diſloyalty or miſconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is ſeldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accuſers; but, without giving him the leaſt opportunity of making a defence, an officer is diſpatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy paſha receives it with the higheſt reſpect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, ſays, "*The will of God and the emperor be done*," or ſome ſuch expreſſion, teſtifying his entire reſignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes

the ſilken cord, which the officer has ready in his boſom, and having tied it round his own neck, and ſaid a ſhort prayer, the officer's ſervants throw him on the floor, and drawing the cord tight, ſoon diſpatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkiſh empire is of two ſorts: the firſt have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treaſury. Thoſe that have certain lands amount to about 268,000 effective men. Beſides theſe, there are alſo certain auxiliary forces raiſed by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and, till of late, the Georgians, who are commanded by their reſpective princes. The khan of the Crim Tartars, before his country was ſubjected to Ruſſia, was obliged to furniſh 100,000 men, and to ſerve in perſon, when the grand-ſignor took the field. In every war, beſides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of ſucceeding the officers. Theſe adventurers do not only promiſe themſelves an eſtate if they ſurvive, but are taught, that if they die in war againſt the Chriſtians, they ſhall go immediately to Paradiſe. The forces which receive their pay from the treaſury are called the ſpahis, or horſe-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janiſaries, or foot-guards, who are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in the Turkiſh armies, and on whom they principally depend in an engagement. Theſe amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Conſtantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded ſo far ſometimes as to depoſe the ſultan. They are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up to the exerciſe of arms from their infancy; and there are not leſs than 100,000 foot ſoldiers ſcattered over every province of the empire, who procure themſelves to be regiſtered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janiſaries, which are very great, being ſubject to no juriſdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander. Mr. Eton ſtates the number of janiſaries at 113,400, the whole of the Turkiſh infantry at 207,400, and the cavalry at 181,000; making a total of 388,000. But, deducting from theſe the leventis, who belong to the fleet, and can only be employed near the coaſt where the fleet is; the garriſons of Conſtantinople, and the fortreſſes and frontiers in Europe and Aſia; the boſtangees, who only march when the grand-ſignor takes the field; the miklagis, and ſuch as ſerve the vifier, the beglerbegs, and paſhas, and never go into the battle; the remainder of effective men will amount only to 186,400. Yet the Porte, (adds he,) has often found it difficult to aſſemble 100,000 men; and, in 1774, with its utmoſt efforts, could only bring into the field 142,000.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are ſwelled with all the pomp of eaſtern magnificence. He is ſtyled by his ſubjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Diſpoſer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand-ſignor's arms are, vert, a creſcent, argent, creſted with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are deſigned for the ſtate, the army, or the navy: but they are ſeldom preferred till about forty years of age, and they riſe by their merit. They are generally the children of Chriſtian parents, either taken in war, purchaſed, or preſents from the viceroys and governors of diſtant provinces, the moſt beautiful, well-made, and ſprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand-ſignor, before they are ſent to the colleges or ſeminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the ſeraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly ſent as preſents from the provinces and the Greek iſlands, moſt of them the children of Chriſtian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, ſome years ſince, aboliſhed the infamous tribute of children of both ſexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the haram depends on the taſte of the reigning monarch. Sultan Selim had two thouſand; Achmet had but three hundred; and the preſent ſultan has nearly 1000. On their admiſſion, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to ſew and embroider, muſic, dancing, and other accompliſhments, and furniſhed with the richeſt clothes and ornaments. They all ſleep in ſeparate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptreſs. Their chief governeſs is called *katon kiaja*, or governeſs of the noble young ladies. There is not one ſervant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation: the laſt that is entered ſerves her who preceded her, and herſelf. Theſe ladies are ſcarcely ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the grand-ſignor removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are incloſed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land, they are put into cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made at certain diſtances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converſe by ſigns with great quickneſs; and ſome dwarfs, who are exhibited for the diverſion of his majeſty.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more ſouthern and fertile parts of Aſia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vaſt country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of theſe people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name ſignifies *wanderers*, extended its conqueſts under various leaders, and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the Caſpian to the Straits of the Dardanelles. Being long reſident, in the capacity of body-guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, they ſeized that kingdom about the year 1037, and ſpread their ravages all over the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were ſometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declenſion of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of Paleſtine; and the viſiting of the holy city of Jeruſalem being then part of the Chriſtian exerciſes, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy contributions, and exerciſed ſuch horrible cruelties upon the Chriſtian inhabitants of the country, as gave riſe to the famous cruſades, which we have mentioned more fully in the introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progreſs of the Chriſtians than the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected at Jeruſalem, under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his ſucceſſors were poſſeſſed of any real power of maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1229, had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed

themſelves, under Othman, of ſome of the fineſt provinces in Aſia, of Nice, and Pruſa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, firſt embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader; the appellation of Turks, as it ſignifies in the original, *wanderers* or *baniſhed men*, being conſidered by them as a term of reproach. Othman is to be ſtyled the founder of the Turkiſh empire, and was ſucceeded by a race of the moſt warlike princes that are mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1357, they paſſed the Helleſpont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath ſettled the ſeat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of janiſaries was eſtabliſhed. Such were their conqueſts, that Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in hopes of ſubjecting all the Greek empire. His greatneſs and inſolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was juſt then returned from his eaſtern conqueſts, to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle was fought between thoſe rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himſelf taken priſoner, and ſhut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, by declaring war againſt one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long ſiege, Mahomet II. took Conſtantinople, in 1453. Thus, after an exiſtence of ten centuries, from its firſt commencement under Conſtantine the Great, ended the Greek empire: an event which had been long foreſeen, and was owing to many cauſes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themſelves, their courts and families, and the diſlike their ſubjects had to the popes and the weſtern church,—one of the patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romiſh legate, "that he would rather ſee a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Conſtantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conqueſts, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to ſubjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks ſtill exiſt, as we have already obſerved, particularly in Conſtantinople and the neighbouring iſlands, where, though under grievous oppreſſions, they profeſs Chriſtianity under their own patriarchs of Conſtantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jeruſalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are richer than thoſe of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer and more converſant in trade. It is ſaid that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkiſh government, ſtill preſerve ſomewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles, which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors.

The conqueſt of Conſtantinople was followed by the ſubmiſſion of all Greece: and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was ſucceeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war againſt the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as Perſia and Egypt. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was haraſſed by family differences, and at laſt, by order of his ſecond ſon, Selim, was poiſoned by a Jew phyſician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldeſt brother, Achmet, to be ſtrangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Perſians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Perſia, he turned his arms againſt

Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damaſcus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was ſucceeded in 1520 by his ſon Soliman the Magnificent, who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Chriſtian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that iſland to Malta, which was given them by the emperor, Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian powers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Auſtria, and beſieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miſcarried alſo in an attempt he made to take the iſle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greateſt prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was ſucceeded, in 1566, by his ſon Selim II. In his reign, the Turkiſh marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Chriſtians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkiſh power, had the blow been purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa from the Moors; he was ſucceeded, in 1575, by his ſon, Amurath III. who forced the Perſians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewiſe took the important fortreſs of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was ſucceeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is diſtinguiſhed by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. He was often unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians, and died of the plague in 1604. Though his ſucceſſor Achmet was beaten by the Perſians, yet he forced the Auſtrians to a treaty in 1606, and to conſent that he ſhould keep what he was poſſeſſed of in Hungary. Oſman, a prince of great ſpirit, but no more than ſixteen years of age, being unſucceſsful againſt the Poles, was put to death by the janiſaries, whoſe power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. ſucceeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Perſians. His brother, Ibrahim, ſucceeded him in 1640; a worthleſs inactive prince, and ſtrangled by the janiſaries in 1648. His ſucceſſor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well ſerved by his grand vifier, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been beſieged for thirty years. This conqueſt coſt the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is ſaid, 180,000. A bloody war ſucceeded between the Imperialiſts and the Turks, in which the latter were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raiſe it with great loſs, by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, and other Chriſtian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, ſhut up in priſon by his ſubjects, and ſucceeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unſucceſsful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother and ſucceſſor, Achmet I.—but Muſtapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in perſon. After ſome briſk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialiſts and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Muſtapha was depoſed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave ſhelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Ruſſians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Ruſ-

ſian army was ſurrounded without hopes of eſcape, the czarina inclined the grand viſier to the peace, by a preſent of all the money, plate, and jewels, that were in the army: but the Ruſſians delivered up to the Turks Aſoph, Kaminieck, and Taiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Chriſtian powers. The ſcene of action was transferred to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave ſo many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a diſgraceful peace at Paſſarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Perſians, under Kouli Khan, ſucceeding, the populace demanded the heads of the viſier, the chief admiral, and ſecretary, which were accordingly ſtruck off; but the ſultan alſo was depoſed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne He was unſucceſsful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at laſt obliged to recogniſe that uſurper as king of Perſia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialiſts and Ruſſians; againſt the former he was victorious; but the ſucceſſes of the latter, which threatened Conſtantinople itſelf, forced him to agree to a haſty treaty with the emperor, and, after that, another with the Ruſſians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died 1754.

He was ſucceeded by his brother, Oſman III. who died in 1757, and was ſucceeded by his brother Muſtapha III. who died on the 21ſt of January, 1774, whilſt engaged in an unſucceſsful war with the Ruſſians, of which ſome account has been already given in the hiſtory of that country. In the courſe of this war, a conſiderable Ruſſian fleet was fitted out, which ſet ſail from the Baltic, with a view of attacking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February, 1770, and ſhaped its courſe for the Morea. Count Orlow having debarked ſuch land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the weſtward of Cape Metapan, and about fifty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Miſitra, the ancient Sparta, the Mainotes, the deſcendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who ſtill poſſeſſed the country of their anceſtors, under ſubjection to the grand-ſignior, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and joined the Ruſſians by thouſands, from their averſion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Ruſſians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea ſeemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Miſitra, Arcadia, and ſeveral other places, as ſpeedily taken, while the Ruſſian ſhips, that had been ſeparated, or that put into Italy, arrived ſucceſſively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every ſmall detachment ſoon ſwelled into a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time, the Greeks gave the utmoſt looſe to their revenge, and every where ſlaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were ſeized extended itſelf to the iſlands, where alſo the Turks were maſſacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head againſt the Ruſſians and Greeks in the field: their only protection was found within the fortreſſes. The malcontents had ſo much increaſed ſince the firſt debarkation of the Ruſſians, that they inveſted Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the caſtle of Patras, with ſeveral other places of leſs note. But whilſt they were employed in theſe enterpriſes, an army of thirty thouſand men, compoſed chiefly of Albanians, and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by the ſeraſkier, paſha of Boſnia. This Turkiſh general recovered all the northern part

of the peninſula as ſoon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were inſtantly put to death. The Ruſſians were now driven back to their ſhips; but about the ſame time, another Ruſſian ſquadron, commanded by admiral Elphinſtone, arrived from England to re-inforce count Orlow's armament. The Turkiſh fleet alſo appeared, and an obſtinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that iſland from Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia. The Turkiſh fleet was conſiderably ſuperior in force, conſiſting of fifteen ſhips of the line, from ſixty to ninety guns, beſides a number of chebeques and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty ſail; the Ruſſians had only ten ſhips of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ſhips engaged with great reſolution, while others on both ſides found various cauſes for not approaching ſufficiently near. But Spiritof, a Ruſſian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultana, of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they fought with the greateſt fury, and at length ran ſo cloſe, that they locked themſelves together, with grappling-irons, and other tackling. In this ſituation, the Ruſſians, by throwing hand-grenades from the tops, ſet the Turkiſh ſhip on fire, and as they could not now be diſentangled, both ſhips were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumſtanced, without a poſſibility of ſuccour, they both at length blew up with a moſt terrible exploſion. The commanders and principal officers on both ſides were moſtly ſaved; but the crews were almoſt totally loſt. The dreadful fate of thoſe ſhips, as well as the danger to thoſe that were near them, produced a kind of pauſe on both ſides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night without any material advantage on either ſide. When it became dark, the Turkiſh fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coaſt of Natolia; the Ruſſians ſurrounded them thus cloſely pent up, and in the night ſome fire-ſhips were ſucceſsfully conveyed among the Turkiſh fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Engliſhman in the Ruſſian ſervice, who, though abandoned by his crew, himſelf directed the operations of the fire-ſhips. The fire took place ſo effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few galleys, that were towed off by the Ruſſians, was totally deſtroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a caſtle that protected it, with ſuch ſucceſs, that a ſhot having blown up the powder-magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbiſh. Thus was there ſcarcely a veſtige left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a caſtle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in exiſtence at one the ſame morning.

Some of the principal military tranſactions by land, in the war between Ruſſia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we ſhall here only add, that, after a moſt unfortunate war on the ſide of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Ruſſians, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, a few months after the acceſſion of Achmet IV. The emperor, Muſtapha III. left a ſon, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical ſituation of the Turkiſh affairs, Muſtapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to ſucceed him in the throne; and to this prince, under the ſtrongeſt terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant ſon.

The perſeverance of the Turks, ſupplied by their numerous Aſiatic armies, and their implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than an excellency in military diſcipline or courage in war, have been the great

ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which have rendered their empire ſo formidable. The extenſion, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in ſome meaſure owing to the military inſtitution of the janiſaries, a corps originally compoſed of children of ſuch Chriſtian parents as could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected together, were formed to the exerciſe of arms under the eyes of their officers in the ſeraglio. They were generally in number about 40.000; and ſo excellent was their diſcipline, that they were deemed to be invincible; and they ſtill continue the flower of the Turkiſh armies: but the Ottoman power is in a declining ſtate. The political ſtate of Europe, and the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, is now the ſureſt baſis of this empire, and the principal reaſon why the fineſt provinces in the world are ſuffered to remain any longer in the poſſeſſion of theſe haughty infidels.

Notwithſtanding the peace which was eſtabliſhed in 1774, between Ruſſia and the Porte, various ſources of diſcord having been left open, very little tranquillity could ſubſiſt between them. For an account of theſe we refer our readers to our hiſtorical narrative of the former empire. Towards the latter end of the year 1786, the Turks ſeem to have adopted a regular ſyſtem of indirect hoſtility againſt Ruſſia, who was continually making ſuch encroachments, as made the Turks reſolve to tempt again the fortune of war. Scarcely had the empreſs returned from the ſplendid journey which ſhe made to Cherſon, before a declaration of Turkiſh hoſtilities was announced at Peterſburg. What part the emperor of Germany would take in this war was not at firſt known. The capriciouſneſs of his character kept the ſpirit of curioſity in ſuſpenſe for ſome little time; but he ſoon declared himſelf determined to ſupport all the claims which Ruſſia had upon the Porte.

Inſtead of being diſheartened at the formidableneſs of the confederacy that had broken out againſt them, the Turks applied themſelves with redoubled ardour to prepare for reſiſtance. But an event that ſeems greatly to have contributed to the bad ſucceſs experienced by the creſcent in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the Fourh, grand-ſignor, on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make ſuitable allowances for the diſadvantages under which he laboured as a deſpotic monarch, and the prejudices of his country, may be allowed to poſſeſs ſome claim to our eſteem. He filled the throne of Conſtantinople without reflecting diſgrace upon human nature. His temper appears to have been mild and humane. He not only permitted Selim, his nephew, ſon of the late emperor, to live, but even publicly acknowledged him for his ſucceſſor. His reign was not ſtained with ſo many arbitrary murders as thoſe of his predeceſſors; nor did he think it at all neceſſary that a diſgraced miniſter ſhould part at once with his office and his life. He ſuffered his countrymen to improve by the arts and military diſcipline of Europe. Yſſouf, his prime miniſter, during the laſt three years of his life, though by no means conſiſtently great, muſt be allowed to deſerve our applauſe, and will be better known to poſterity as the patron of the Turkiſh tranſlation of the Encyclopédie, than as the victorious and ſkilful rival of the Auſtrian arms in the Bannat of Tranſylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterpriſing age of ſixty-four, and Selim the Third ſucceeded, at twenty-eight. In the vigour of youth, he thought it neceſſary to diſtinguiſh himſelf by ſomething extraordinary, and at firſt purpoſed to put himſelf at the head of his forces. He was eaſily, as might be expected from his effeminate education, diſſuaded from this

raſh and ridiculous project. But he conceived that at leaſt it became him to diſcountenance the miniſters of his predeceſſor, to confound their pains, and reverſe all their proceedings. Theſe miniſters had acquired in ſome degree the confidence of thoſe who acted under their command; and it appeared in the ſequel that the fantaſtic ſplendour of a new and juvenile ſovereign could not compenſate for the capricious and arbitrary changes with which his acceſſion was accompanied.

In the year 1788 Choczim and Oczakow ſurrendered to the arms of Ruſſia, as will be found in the hiſtory of that country; and on the 12th of September, 1789, the Auſtrian forces ſat down before Belgrade, and with that good fortune which ſeemed almoſt conſtantly to attend their commander, marſhal Laudohn. The place, together with its numerous garriſon, ſurrendered, after a vigorous reſiſtance, on the 8th of October. The reſt of the campaign was little elſe than a ſucceſſion of the moſt important ſucceſſes; and a circumſtance that did not a little contribute to this, was the ſyſtem adopted by the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, of ſuffering the Turkiſh troops to march out of the ſeveral places they garriſoned without moleſtation. Buchareſt, the capital of Walachia, fell without oppoſition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Akerman, on the Black Sea, was reduced by the Ruſſians; and Bender ſurrendered to prince Potemkin, not without ſuſpicion of ſiniſter practices, on the 15th of November. One only check preſented itſelf to the allied arms. The garriſon of Orſova diſplayed the moſt inflexible conſtancy, and marſhal Laudohn was obliged to raiſe the ſiege of this place in the middle of December, after having ſat down before it for a period of ſix weeks. In a ſhort time after, the ſiege was renewed, and Orſova was reduced the 16th of April, 1790.

After the reduction of Orſova, the war was carried on with languor on the part of Auſtria; and in the month of June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the miniſters of Pruſſia, Auſtria, England, and the United Provinces aſſiſted, and at which alſo an envoy from Poland was occaſionally preſent. After a negotiation, which continued till the 17th of Auguſt, it was agreed that a peace ſhould be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte; that the baſis of this treaty ſhould be a general ſurrender of all the conqueſts made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a ſecurity till the Porte ſhould accede to the terms of the agreement, when it was alſo to be reſtored. On the other hand, the king of Pruſſia gave up the Belgic provinces, and even promiſed his aſſiſtance in reducing them to the Auſtrian dominions.

The king of Pruſſia was leſs ſucceſsful in his mediation with Ruſſia. Catharine had not, like Leopold, an imperial crown at ſtake, which, unſubſtantial as it is, has always its charms with thoſe who are educated in the habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conqueſts alſo, on the ſide of Turkey, were too important to be eaſily relinquiſhed; and ſhe conſidered her dignity attacked by the inſolent ſtyle of Pruſſian mediation. The ſubſtance of her anſwer to the Pruſſian memorial was therefore, "That the empreſs of Ruſſia would make peace and war with whom ſhe pleaſed, without the interference of any foreign power."

The campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Ruſſia, with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Gallitzin; and in a ſubſequent victory, on the 12th, by the ſame general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks loſt not leſs than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers, beſides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Ruſſian arms

experienced a check, by which they loſt about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquiſh their intention of beſieging Brailow. After re-inforcing this place, the viſier proceeded to the banks of the Danube, near Siliſtria; and by means of a bridge which he threw acroſs the river, his advanced poſts were enabled to make incurſions on the oppoſite ſide. The ability of the viſier, and the valour of the Turks, were however exerted in vain againſt the diſcipline and experience of European armies. In the month of June 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutuſow. On the 3d of July, the fortreſs of Anape was taken by general Gudowitſch; and the garriſon, to the amount of 6,000 men, made priſoners. This event was followed, on the 9th of the ſame month, by a ſignal victory which prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,000 men, the flower of the Turkiſh army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and loſt their entire camp-equipage, colours, and 30 pieces of cannon. The Ruſſians are ſaid to have loſt only 150 men killed, and between 200 and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorouſly carried on, the mediating powers were not inactive. Great Britain and Pruſſia, in particular, declared themſelves determined to ſupport the balance of Europe, and to force the empreſs to peace upon the baſis of a *ſtatus quo*. Of the interference of Britain in this diſpute, we have treated more largely in another place. To the firſt applications of the Engliſh miniſter, the empreſs anſwered in nearly the ſame terms in which ſhe had before replied to the memorial of Pruſſia—"That the Britiſh court would not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the courſe of the negotiation, however, her demands became more moderate: and as the northern powers, and particularly Denmark, began to exert themſelves for the prevention of hoſtilities, ſhe confined her views to the poſſeſſion of Oczakow, with the diſtrict extending from the Bog to the Neiſter, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. The negotiation was protracted to the 11th of Auguſt, when at length peace was concluded between the czarina and the Porte, nearly upon theſe terms—terms which, conſidering the ill ſucceſs of the war, cannot be accounted very diſadvantageous to the Turks, who have loſt a fortreſs more uſeful for the purpoſe of annoying Ruſſia, than for defending their own territories; but certainly of conſiderable importance to Ruſſia, which, by this ceſſion, has ſecured the peaceable poſſeſſion of the Crimea.

It is computed that in this war Turkey loſt 200,000 ſoldiers; Ruſſia, 100,000; the Auſtrians, who fell in battle, or in the unhealthy marſhes, are ſuppoſed to exceed 150,000.

The treacherous and wanton invaſion of Egypt by the French, in 1798, without even the pretence that the Porte had given them any cauſe of offence, juſtly provoked the Turks to declare war againſt France; but as the hoſtilities which have hitherto taken place between theſe powers have been almoſt entirely confined to the attack on Egypt and ſome towns in Syria, of which an account is given elſewhere, it is unneceſſary to repeat it here.

Selim III. grand-ſignor, born in 1761, ſucceeded to the throne of Turkey on the death of his uncle, the late ſultan, April 7, 1789.

# TARTARY IN ASIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 4000 | between | 50 and 150 Eaſt longitude. |
| Breadth 2400 | | 30 and 72 North latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] IT would be deceiving the reader to deſire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and ſituation of theſe vaſt regions. Even the empreſs of Ruſſia and her miniſtry are ignorant of her preciſe limits with the Chineſe, the Perſians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fulleſt extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the North; by the Pacific Ocean on the Eaſt; by China, India, Perſia, and the Caſpian Sea, on the South; and by Muſcovy on the Weſt.

| Grand diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| North eaſt diviſion | Kamtſchatka Tartars | Kamtſchatka | |
| | Jakutſkoi Tartars | Jakutſkoi | |
| South-eaſt diviſion | Bratſki | Bratſki | 935,380 |
| | Thibet and Mogul Tartars | Thibet | |
| | | Poion | |
| | | Kudak | |
| North-weſt diviſion | Samoieda | Mangaſia | |
| | Oſtiack | Kortſkoi | |
| South-weſt diviſion | Circaſſian and Aſtracan Tartary | Terki | |
| | | Aſtracan | |
| Middle diviſion | Siberia | Tobolſk | |
| | Kalmuc Tartary | Bocharia | 850,000 |
| | Uſbeck Tartary | Samarcand | 339,840 |

Kamtſchatka is a great peninſula, which extends from north to ſouth about ſeven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four diſtricts, Bolcheretſk, Tigilſkaia Krepoſt, Verchnei or Upper Kamtſchatkoi Oſtrog, and Niſhnei or Lower Kamtſchatkoi Oſtrog.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucaſus in Circaſſia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat, ſo contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the ſame mountain, which croſſes all Aſia from Mongalia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

SEAS.] Theſe are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caſpian Sea.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a courſe of two thouſand miles; the Oby, which divides Aſia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Geneſa or Jenſka; the Burrumpooter; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Ruſſian and Chineſe empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this country is very different, by reaſon of its vaſt extent from North to South; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the ſouthern being in the ſame latitude with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and Ruſſian Lapland are moſt uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneſſes. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air is pure and wholeſome; and Mr. Tooke obſerves, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not ſo much addicted to an immoderate uſe of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almoſt to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radiſhes, turneps, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but ſcarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit-trees to bear have hitherto been in vain: but there is reaſon to believe that induſtry and patience may at length overcome the rudeneſs of the climate. Currants and ſtrawberries of ſeveral ſorts are ſaid to grow here in as great perfection as in the Engliſh gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia. Aſtracan, and the ſouthern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than induſtry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almoſt all the kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes, which are reckoned the largeſt and fineſt in the world. The ſummers are very dry, and from the end of July to the beginning of October the air is peſtered, and the ſoil ſometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locuſts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Ruſſian embaſſador to China, repreſents ſome parts of Tartary as deſirable and fertile countries, the graſs growing ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the higheſt in Aſia, and is a part of that elevated tract which gives riſe to the rivers of India and China, and thoſe of Siberia, and other parts of Tartary,

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is ſaid that Siberia contains mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis lazuli, and loadſtones: a ſort of large teeth found here have occaſioned diſpute among naturaliſts, whether they belong to elephants or fiſhes.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. Their horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are five or ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong. Near Aſtracan, there is a bird, called by the Ruſſians baba, of a grey colour, and ſomething larger than a ſwan: he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart, or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on ſeeing a ſhoal or fry of ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings and drives them to a ſhallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going aſhore, eats them, or carries them to his young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The foreſts of Siberia are well ſtocked with a variety of animals, ſome of which are not to be found in other countries. Theſe ſupply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the ſame time, furniſh them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be conſidered as the native country of black foxes, ſables, and ermines, the ſkins of which are here ſuperior to thoſe of any part of the world. Horſes and cattle are in great plenty, and ſold at low prices. The bos grunniens of Linnæus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary and Thibet, has a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a gloſſy and ſilky texture. Theſe tails are a conſiderable article of exportation

from Thibet. The Indians faſten ſmall bundles of the hair to a handle, which they uſe for fly flaps; the Chineſe dye tufts of it with a beautiful ſcarlet, to decorate their caps, and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their ſtandards, by ſome erroneouſly called horſe-tails.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. We can form no probable conjecture as to the number of the inhabitants in Tartary; but, from many circumſtances, we muſt conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general ſtrong-made ſtout men; their faces broad, their noſes flattiſh, their eyes ſmall and black, but very quick; their beards are ſcarcely viſible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Circaſſian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for parents there make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters to recruit the ſeraglios of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They are purchaſed, when young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit their capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale. The Tartars are, in general, a wandering ſort of people. In their peregrinations they ſet out in the ſpring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchaſe cloth, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour, as the greateſt ſlavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes. If they are angry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Ruſſian. Among themſelves, they are very hoſpitable, and wonderfully ſo to the ſtrangers and travellers who confidentially put themſelves under their protection. They are naturally of an eaſy, cheerful temper, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſeldom depreſſed by care or melancholy. There is a ſtrong reſemblance between the northern and independent Tartars, and ſome nations of Canada, in North America; particularly, when any of their people are infirm through great age, or ſeized with diſtempers reckoned incurable, they make a ſmall hut for the patient near ſome river, in which they leave him with ſome proviſions, and ſeldom or never return to viſit him. On ſuch occaſions, they ſay they do their parents a good office in ſending them to a better world. Notwithſtanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, eſpecially towards the ſouth, are tractable, humane, and are ſuſceptible of pious and virtuous ſentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their ſubmiſſion to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has diſtinguiſhed them in all ages. Hiſtory tells us, that Darius, king of Perſia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius ſent an embaſſador to demand where it was they propoſed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for anſwer, with a ſpirit ſo peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they ſhould give him battle: but when once he was come to the place of their fathers' monuments, he ſhould then underſtand in what manner the Scythians uſed to fight.

The Tartars are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy; they ſeldom appear on foot. They are dexterous in ſhooting at a mark, info-

much that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will ſplit a pole with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. The dreſs of the men is very ſimple, and fit for action; it generally conſiſts of a ſhort jacket, with narrow ſleeves, made of deer's ſkin, having the fur outward; trowſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and tight to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half ſunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle with a hole in the top to let out the ſmoke, and benches round the fire to ſit or lie upon. This ſeems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eaſtward, to the Japaneſe Ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itſelf, as it were, under ground; and we are told, that ſo ſociable are they in their diſpoſitions, that they make ſubterraneous communications with each other, ſo that they may be ſaid to live in an inviſible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horſe-fleſh, eſpecially if it be young, and a little tainted; which makes their cabbins extremely nauſeous. Though horſe-fleſh be preferred raw by ſome northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been ſmoked and dried. The Tartars purchaſe their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or ſlave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes, the wife's ſon is always preferred to the ſucceſſion. After a wife is turned of forty, ſhe is employed in menial duties, as another ſervant, and as ſuch muſt attend the young wives who ſucceed to her place; nor is it uncommon, in ſome of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The deſcendents of the old inhabitants of Siberia are ſtill moſt of them idolaters. They conſiſt of many nations, entirely different from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by ſome Tartars, and ſuch as are converted to Chriſtianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increaſed ſince it became a Ruſſian province; for the Ruſſians have founded there a number of towns, fortreſſes, and villages. Notwithſtanding which, it preſents but a void and deſert view; ſince, by its extent, it is capable of ſupporting ſeveral millions more than it at preſent contains. For the manners and cuſtoms of the other Tartars belonging to the Ruſſian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars ſomewhat reſembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even popiſh religions. Some of them are the groſſeſt idolaters, and worſhip little rude images, dreſſed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free in caſe of diſappointment in any purſuit.

But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet and Laſſa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are the moſt remarkable, and the moſt worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Dalai Lama, who is not only ſubmitted to, and adored by them, but is alſo the great object of adoration among the various tribes of heathen Tartars, who roam through the vaſt tract of continent which ſtretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Corea, on the Sea of Japan. He is not only the ſovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as ſuperſtition is ever the ſtrongeſt

where it is moſt removed from its object, the more remote Tartars abſolutely regard him as the Deity himſelf. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worſhip and make rich offerings at his ſhrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expenſe, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed, as his nuncio, from Thibet. The opinion of thoſe who are reputed the moſt orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama ſeems to die either of old age or of infirmity, his ſoul in fact only quits a crazy habitation to look for another younger or better, and it is diſcovered again in the body of ſome child, by certain tokens, known only to the lamas or prieſts, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been diſcovered ſome time before by the Tayſhoo Lama, who, in authority and ſanctity of character, is next to the Grand Lama, and, during his minority, acts as chief. The lamas, who form the moſt numerous, as well as the moſt powerful body in the ſtate, have the prieſthood entirely in their hands; and, beſides, fill up many monaſtic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The reſidence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vaſt palace on a mountain near the banks of the Burrumpooter, about ſeven miles from Lahaſſa. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774. The religion of Thibet, though in many reſpects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others it has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and alſo highly reſpect the waters of the Ganges, the ſource of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunniaſſes, or Indian pilgrims, often viſit Thibet as a holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Beſides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is poſſeſſed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extenſive, and border on Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamaniſm. The profeſſors of this religious ſect believe in one Supreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his ſight. But they alſo maintain that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the deſtiny of men, among a great number of ſubaltern divinities, under his command and controul. but who, nevertheleſs, generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot diſpenſe with uſing all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewiſe ſuppoſe, that, for the moſt part, theſe inferior deities abominate and puniſh premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly perſuaded of a future exiſtence; but they have many ſuperſtitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are conſidered as being vaſtly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their ſenſual pleaſure, to people the world, and to look after houſehold affairs; and, in conſequence of theſe principles, they are treated with much ſeverity and contempt.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurpriſed to find this article in an account of the Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendents, Aſtracan and

the neighbouring countries were the ſeats of learning and politeneſs as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever ſo ſplendid, falls ſhort of that of thoſe princes; and ſome remains of their taſte in architecture are ſtill extant, but in ſpots ſo deſolate, that they are almoſt inacceſſible. The encouragement of learning was the firſt care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Perſian and Arabic tongues; and their hiſtories, many of which are ſtill extant in manuſcript, carry with them the ſtrongeſt marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] Theſe are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the above-mentioned great conquerors and their ſucceſſors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either ſurrounded ſmall towns, now quite demoliſhed, or were deſigned for the defence of camps, forts, or caſtles, the veſtiges of which are often to be diſcovered. Many of them are ſtill in tolerable preſervation. The Slabode, or Tartarian ſuburb of Kaſimof, on the Oha, ſeems to have been the reſidence of ſome khan. In the midſt of the ruins of that city, is a round and elevated tower, called, in their language, *Miſquir*, a ſort of temple, or building, dedicated to devotion. Here are alſo the remains of the walls of a palace: and in one of the maſarets, or burial-places, is a very conſiderable mauſoleum: all which edifices are built of hewn ſtone and bricks. From an Arabic inſcription we learn, that the khan of Schagali was buried there in the 962d year of the Hegira, or the 1520th of the Chriſtian æra. Near Mount Caucaſus are ſtill very conſiderable remains of Madſchar, a celebrated city of former times. Near Derbent are numerous tombs covered with cylindrical ſtones, exceeding the uſual ſtature of men, with Arabic inſcriptions. In the environs of Aſtracan the ruins of ancient Aſtracan are very viſible; and the rubbiſh and ramparts of another reſpectable town ſtill exiſt near Tzaritzin, on the left ſhore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of Kama, which empties itſelf into the above-mentioned river, are many ſuperb monuments of the ancient city Bulgari, conſiſting of towers, moſques, houſes, and ſepulchres, all built of ſtone or brick. The oldeſt epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the moſt modern at leaſt four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tſcheremtſcham, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins ſomewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are thoſe of Boulmer, an ancient and very conſiderable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the ſmall town of Bilyairſk. In the fortreſs of Kaſan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are ſo broad, that they ſerve at preſent for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn ſtone. Aſcending the river Kaſanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the ſtrong ramparts of the old Kaſan. Near the Ouſa are cemeteries full of innumerable inſcriptions, and ſeveral ſepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are ſtill ſeen about Tobolſk upon the Irtith. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratſchik. There are a great number of other ruins in Siberia; and the deſert of Kirguis abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and ſilver coins have likewiſe been found, with ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written, which have been carried to Peterſburg. In 1720, there were found in Calmuc Tartary a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, ſome urns, lamps, and ear-rings; an equeſtrian ſtatue; an image

of an oriental prince with a diadem on his head; two women ſeated on thrones; and a roll of manuſcripts, which was ſent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. The quantity of gold ornaments found in the tombs of Siberia, and of elegant workmanſhip, as bracelets, collars in the ſhape of ſerpents, vaſes, crowns, rings, bucklers, ſabres, figures of animals, Tartar idols, &c. is ſurpriſing. It is ſuppoſed that theſe burial-places were made about the time of Zingis Khan, and that the ſuperſtition prevailed in thoſe parts of departed ſouls following the ſame kind of life they did in this world, and therefore, on the death of a prince, they ſacrificed his favourite wife, &c. and buried with him his arms and other valuable things.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of theſe we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be ſaid to be places of abode, rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence againſt an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding diviſions of this country, merit notice. Tobolſk and Aſtracan are conſiderable cities, the firſt containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns, have alſo lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civiliſing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Ruſſian government.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the hiſtory of Tartary, their chief traffic conſiſting in cattle, fine ox-tails, ſkins, beavers, rhubarb, muſk, and fiſh. The Aſtracans, notwithſtanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a conſiderable traffic into Perſia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and ſome European manufactures. The Bucharians alſo are a very commercial people: their caravans travel through a great part of Aſia, and traffic with Thibet, China, India, Perſia, and Ruſſia. Their principal marts are Tomſk and Orenburg. Gold duſt is often found in the ſand of the rivers of Bucharia.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers, who, under various names, deſtroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and thoſe fine provinces, where learning and the arts reſided, are now ſcenes of horror and barbarity. This muſt have been owing to the dreadful maſſacres made among the nations by the two above-mentioned conquerors and their deſcendents; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories, than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand people in a few days.

The country of Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite reſidence of Zingis or Jenghis Khan, and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world.

The former, about the year 1200, made himſelf maſter of thoſe regions which form at this day the Aſiatic part of the Ruſſian empire; and his ſon, Batou Sagin, conquered Southern Ruſſia and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Ruſſians. It was not until the time of Ivan III. who aſcended the Ruſſian throne in 1462, that the Ruſſians were able to throw off the galling yoke of the Tartars. Ivan repeatedly defeated them, ſubdued

the kingdom of Kaſan, and other provinces, and made his name reſpected through all the neighbouring countries.

The fame of Tamerlane has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan: his defeat of the Turkiſh emperor Bajazet has been noticed in the hiſtory of that nation. The honour of being deſcended from him is claimed not only by all the khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Hindooſtan himſelf. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharia; ſituated in the latitude of 32 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles diſtant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe common compoſe innumerable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate khans, or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great khan, who claims a paramount power over ſtrangers as well as natives, and who can frequently bring into the field 100,000 horſemen. His chief reſidence is a kind of military ſtation, which is moved and ſhifted according to the chance of war and other occaſions. When the vaſt dominions of Zingis Khan fell to pieces, under his ſucceſſors in the 16th century, the Mogul and Tartar hordes, who had formed one empire, again ſeparated, and have ſince continued diſtinct. They are bounded on every ſide by the Ruſſian, the Chineſe, the Mogul, the Perſian or the Turkiſh empires, each of whom are puſhing on their conqueſts in this extenſive, and, in ſome places, fertile country. The khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgement of their dependency upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utmoſt conſequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency: and when united, they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chineſe.

The method of carrying on war, by waſting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of them from the Danube eaſtward. This circumſtance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of all ſubſiſtence; while the Tartars, having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat, are at no loſs for proviſions.

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# THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1450<br>Breadth 1260 | between | 20 and 42 North latitude.<br>98 and 123 Eaſt longitude. | 1,298,000 |
| | | Chineſe Tartary. | 644,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] CHINA is bounded by Tartary, and an amazing ſtone wall of five hundred leagues in length, on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North Ame-

rica, on the eaſt; by the Chineſian Sea, ſouth; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Ruſſia, on the weſt.

Chineſe Tartary is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the eaſt by the Gulf of Kamtſchatka and the Eaſtern Sea; on the ſouth by China; and on the weſt by the country of the Calmouks, who are eſtabliſhed between the Caſpian Sea and Caſgar.

Eaſtern Tartary extends north and ſouth from the 41ſt to the 55th degree of north latitude, and eaſt and weſt from about the 137th degree of longitude to the Eaſtern Sea. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the ſouth by the Gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the eaſt by the Eaſtern Sea; and on the weſt by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments, the provinces of Chen-yang, Kirin, and Tritcicar; of which the chief towns are Mougdon, Kirin, and Tritcicar.

DIVISION AND POPULATION.] The empire of China is divided into fifteen provinces, each of which might, for its extent, fertility, populouſneſs, and opulence, rank as a diſtinct kingdom. The following ſtatement of the diviſion, population, and extent of China Proper, was delivered to lord Macartney, at his requeſt, by Chow-ta-Zhin, a Chineſe mandarin, and is founded on authentic documents, taken from one of the public offices in Pekin.

| Provinces. | Population. | Sq. Miles. | Acres. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Pe-che-lee | 38,000,000 | 58,949 | 37,727,360 |
| Kiang-nan 2 provinces | 32,000,000 | 92,961 | 59,495,040 |
| Kiang-ſee | 19,000,000 | 72,176 | 46,192,640 |
| Tche-kiang | 21,000,000 | 39,150 | 25,056,000 |
| Fo-chen | 15,000,000 | 53,480 | 34,227,200 |
| Hou-pe, Hou-nan — Hou-quang | 14,000,000 / 13,000,000 | 144,770 | 92,652,800 |
| Ho-nan | 25,000,000 | 65,104 | 41,666,560 |
| Shang-tung | 24,000,000 | 65,104 | 41,666,560 |
| Shan-ſee | 27,000,000 | 55,268 | 35,371,520 |
| Shen-ſee | 18,000,000 | 154,008 | 98,565,120 |
| Kan-ſore | 12,000,000 | | |
| Se-chueen | 27,000,000 | 166,800 | 106,752,000 |
| Canton | 21,000,000 | 79,156 | 50,851,840 |
| Quang-ſee | 10,000,000 | 78,250 | 50,080,000 |
| Yu-nan | 8,000,000 | 107,969 | 69,100,160 |
| Koei-cheou | 9,000,000 | 64,554 | 41,314,560 |
| Total | 333,000,000 | 1,297,969 | 830,719,360 |

With reſpect to this ſtatement, Sir George Staunton, who compiled the judicious and authentic account of the late Engliſh embaſſy to China, obſerves, that "the extent of the provinces is aſcertained by aſtronomical obſervations, as well as by admeaſurement. The number of individuals is regularly taken in each diviſion of a diſtrict by a tything-man, or every tenth maſter of a family. Thoſe returns are collected by officers reſident ſo near as to be capable of correcting any groſs miſtake: and all the returns are lodged in the great regiſter at Pekin. Though the general ſtatement is ſtrictly the reſult of thoſe returns added to each other, which ſeem little liable to error, or, taken ſeparately, to doubt, yet the amount of the whole is ſo prodigious as to ſtagger belief. It muſt, however, be recollected, that population in China is

not ſubject to be materially diminiſhed by war. No private ſoldiers, and a few officers only, natives of the ancient provinces of China, were engaged in the conqueſt of Weſtern Tartary, or in the Thibet war. Celibacy is rare, even in the military profeſſion, among the Chineſe. The number of manufacturers, whoſe occupations are not always favourable to health, whoſe conſtant confinement to particular ſpots, and ſometimes in a cloſe or tainted atmoſphere, muſt be injurious, and whoſe reſidence in towns expoſes them to irregularities, bears but a very ſmall proportion to that of huſbandmen in China. In general there ſeem to be no other bounds to Chineſe populouſneſs, than thoſe which the neceſſity of ſubſiſtence may put to it. Theſe boundaries are certainly more enlarged than in other countries. The whole ſurface of the empire is, with trifling exceptions, dedicated to the production of food for man alone. There is no meadow, and very little paſture, nor are fields cultivated in oats, beans, or turneps, for the ſupport of cattle of any kind. Few parks or pleaſure-grounds are ſeen, excepting thoſe belonging to the emperor. Little land is taken up for roads, the chief communication being by water. There are no commons or lands ſuffered to lie waſte by the neglect, or the caprice, or for the ſport, of great proprietors. No arable land lies fallow. The ſoil under a hot and fertiliſing ſun yields double crops, in conſequence of adapting the culture to the ſoil, and ſupplying its defects by mixture with other earths, by manure, watering, and careful and uſeful induſtry of every kind. The labour of man is little diverted from that induſtry, to miniſter to the luxuries of the opulent and powerful, or in employments of no real uſe. Even the ſoldiers of the Chineſe army, except during the ſhort intervals of the guards which they are called to mount, or the exerciſes or other occaſional ſervices which they perform, are moſtly employed in agriculture. The quantity of ſubſiſtence is increaſed alſo by converting more ſpecies of animals and vegetables to that purpoſe than is uſual in other countries. From a conſideration of the influence of all theſe cauſes, the great population of China, aſſerted in this ſtatement, will not, perhaps, appear ſurpriſing, though it appears from it that every ſquare mile in that vaſt empire contains, upon an average, about one-third more inhabitants, being upwards of three hundred, than are found upon an equal quantity of land, alſo upon an average, in the moſt populous country in Europe."

NAME.] It is probably derived from a Chineſe word, ſignifying middle, from a notion the natives have, that their country lies in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe Tartary; the Croceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River; and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in ſome places boiled to make it fit for uſe.

BAYS.] The chief are thoſe of Nankin and Canton.

CANALS.] Theſe are ſufficient to entitle the ancient Chineſe to the character of a moſt wiſe and induſtrious people. The commodiouſneſs and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn ſtone on the ſides, and they are ſo deep, that they carry large veſſels, and ſometimes extend above 1000 miles in length. Thoſe veſſels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by ſome, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the

land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perſeverance, for the ſafety of the paſſengers, in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the mountains. Theſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, render China delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in places that are not ſo by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the induſtry of the Chineſe, that they are not encumbered with foreſts or woods, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They ſuffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and uſe, or on the ſides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the ſituation of the places. Towards the north it is ſharp, in the middle mild, and in the ſouth hot. The ſoil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can miniſter to the neceſſities, conveniences, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almoſt beyond deſcription. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and ſome are peculiar to itſelf.

The tallow-tree has a ſhort trunk, a ſmooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, ſhaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil ſerves the natives as candles; but they ſmell ſtrong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are ſome which yield a kind of flour; ſome partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of ſome is poiſonous, but affords the fineſt varniſh in the world. After all that can be ſaid of theſe, and many other beautiful and uſeful trees, the Chineſe, notwithſtanding their induſtry, are ſo wedded to their ancient cuſtoms, that they are very little, if at all meliorated by cultivation. The ſame may be ſaid of their richeſt fruits, which, in general, are far from being ſo delicious as thoſe of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chineſe never practiſing grafting or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw ſilk, which ſo much abounds in China; and, above all, the *tea-plant*, or ſhrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent luxuriancy. "Vaſt tracts of hilly land (ſays Sir George Staunton) are planted with it, particularly in the province of Fochen. Its perpendicular growth is impeded for the convenience of collecting its leaves, which is done firſt in ſpring, and twice afterwards in the courſe of the ſummer. Its long and tender branches ſpring up almoſt from the root without any intervening naked trunk. It is buſhy like a roſe-tree, and the expanded petals of the flower bear ſome reſemblance to that of the roſe. Every information received concerning the tea-plant concurred in affirming that its qualities depended both upon the ſoil in which it grew, and the age at which the leaves were plucked off the tree, as well as upon the management of them afterwards. The largeſt and oldeſt leaves, which are the leaſt eſteemed, and deſtined for the uſe of the loweſt claſſes of the people, are often expoſed to ſale with little previous manipulation, and ſtill retaining that kind of vegetable taſte which is common to moſt freſh plants, but which vaniſhes in a little time, whilſt the more eſſential fla-

vour, characteriſtic of each particular vegetable, remains long without diminution. The young leaves undergo no inconſiderable preparation before they are delivered to the purchaſer. Every leaf paſſes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up almoſt to the form it had aſſumed before it became expanded in the progreſs of its growth. It is afterwards placed upon thin plates of earthen-ware or iron, made much thinner than can be executed by artiſts out of China. It is confidently ſaid, in the country, that no plates of copper are ever employed for that purpoſe. Indeed, ſcarcely any utenſil uſed in China is of that metal, the chief application of which is for coin. The earthen or iron plates are placed over a charcoal fire, which draws all remaining moiſture from the leaves, rendering them dry and criſp. The colour and aſtringency of green tea is thought to be derived from the early period at which the leaves are plucked, and which, like unripe fruit, are generally green and acrid."

The Portugueſe had the uſe of tea long before the Engliſh; but it was introduced among the latter before the Reſtoration, as mention is made of it in the firſt act of parliament that ſettled the exciſe on the king for life, in 1660. Catharine, of Liſbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the uſe of it common at his court. The *ginſeng*, ſo famous among the Chineſe as the univerſal remedy, and monopoliſed even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in North America. When brought to Europe, it is little diſtinguiſhed for its healing qualities; and this inſtance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginſeng, however, is a native of the Chineſe Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe ſome naturaliſts) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itſelf, but we know of no extraordinary quality it poſſeſſes. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chineſe government is that of not introducing a ſuperabundance of gold and ſilver, for fear of hurting induſtry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but ſlightly worked, and the currency of that metal is ſupplied by the grains the people pick up in the ſand of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan.

Iron, lead, and tin mines, muſt be very common, ſince theſe metals are ſold at a low rate throughout the empire; and it appears, from very authentic documents, that the uſe of iron in particular was very ancient there: quarries and coal-mines abound in almoſt every province. Coals are found in great plenty in the mountains of the provinces of Shen-ſee, Shan-ſee, and Pe-che-lee: they are uſed by workmen in their furnaces, in all kitchens, and in the ſtoves with which the Chineſe warm their apartments during the winter.

PERSONS, MANNERS, AND CHARACTER.] Parents who cannot ſupport their female children are allowed to caſt them into the river; but they faſten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compaſſionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to ſave them from death. The Chineſe, in their perſons, are middle-ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, their noſes blunt, and turned upwards: they have high cheek-bones, and large lips. The Chineſe have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few ſtraggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, towards the

north, is fair, but towards the ſouth ſwarthy: corpulence is eſteemed a beauty in a man, but conſidered as a palpable blemiſh in the fair ſex, who aim at preſerving a ſlimneſs and delicacy of ſhape. Men of quality and learning, who are not much expoſed to the ſun, are delicately complexioned; and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhow that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump, roſy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate, though florid complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment; ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk. "Of moſt of the women we ſaw (ſays Sir George Staunton), even in the middle and inferior claſſes, the feet were unnaturally ſmall, or rather truncated. They appeared as if the fore-part of the foot had been accidentally cut off, leaving the remainder of the uſual ſize, and bandaged like the ſtump of an amputated limb. They undergo, indeed, much torment, and cripple themſelves in a great meaſure, in imitation of ladies of higher rank, among whom it is the cuſtom to ſtop by preſſure the growth of the ancle as well as foot from the earlieſt infancy; and leaving the great toe in its natural poſition, forcibly to bend the others, and retain them under the foot, till at length they adhere to, as if buried in the ſole, and can no more be ſeparated. It is ſaid, indeed, that this practice is now leſs frequent than formerly, at leaſt among the lower ſort in the northern provinces."

"The exterior demeanour of the Chineſe (obſerves the ſame writer) is very ceremonious. It conſiſts of various evolutions of the body, and inclinations of the head, in bending or ſtiffening the knee, and in joining or diſengaging the hands; all which are conſidered as the perfection of good-breeding and deportment; while the nations who are not expert in ſuch diſcipline are thought to be little better than barbarians. When, however, thoſe Chineſe ceremonies are once ſhown off, the performers of them relapſe into eaſe and familiarity. In their addreſs to ſtrangers, they are not reſtrained by any baſhfulneſs; but preſent themſelves with an eaſy confident air, as if they conſidered themſelves as the ſuperiors, and as if nothing in their manners or appearance could be deficient or inaccurate."

The Chineſe, in general, have been repreſented as the moſt diſhoneſt, low, thieving ſet in the world; employing their natural quickneſs only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, eſpecially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great eaſe, particularly the Engliſh: but they obſerve that none but a Chineſe can cheat a Chineſe. They are fond of law diſputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocriſy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practiſe the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt meanneſſes, to obtain preferment. It ſhould, however, be remembered, that ſome of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by thoſe who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire, but the ſea-port towns; in which they probably met with many knaviſh and deſigning people. But it ſeems not juſt to attempt to characteriſe a great nation by a few inſtances of this kind, though well atteſted; and we appear not to be ſufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and character of the inhabitants. By ſome of the Jeſuit miſſionaries, the Chineſe ſeem to have been too much extolled, and by later writers too much degraded.

DRESS.] This varies according to the diſtinction of ranks, and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that diſtinguiſh the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins are entitled to wear ſatin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. White is only worn for mourning, and cannot be too much ſoiled for the occaſion, to avoid every appearance of perſonal care and ornament. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dreſs is always compoſed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads, of the faſhion of a bell; thoſe of quality are ornamented with jewels. The reſt of their dreſs is eaſy and looſe, conſiſting of a veſt and ſaſh, a coat or gown thrown over them, ſilk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. Dreſs is ſeldom altered in China from fancy or faſhion. Even among the ladies there is little variety in their dreſſes, except, perhaps, in the diſpoſition of the flowers or other ornaments of the head. They generally wear over a ſilk netting, which is in lieu of linen, a waiſtcoat and drawers of ſilk, trimmed or lined in cold weather with furs. Above this is worn a long ſatin robe, which is gracefully gathered round the waiſt, and confined with a ſaſh. Theſe different parts of their apparel are uſually each of a different colour, in the ſelection and contraſt of which the wearers chiefly diſplay their taſte. They ſuffer their nails to grow, but reduce their eye-brows to an arched line.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never ſee each other, in China, till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. When the nuptials are celebrated, the lady is carried (as yet unſeen by the bridegroom) in a gilt and gaudy chair, hung round with feſtoons of artificial flowers, and followed by relations, attendants, and ſervants, bearing the paraphernalia, being the only portion given with a daughter in marriage by her parents. Next to being barren, the greateſt ſcandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of poor family happens to have three or four girls ſucceſſively, it not unfrequently happens that ſhe will expoſe them on the high roads, or caſt them into a river.

FUNERALS.] The Chineſe, among other ſuperſtitions, are particularly ſcrupulous about the time and place of burying their dead. The delay occaſioned before theſe difficult points are aſcertained has often long detained the coffins of the rich from their laſt repoſitory; many are ſeen in houſes and gardens under temporary roofs, to preſerve them in the mean time from the weather; but neceſſity forces the poor to overcome many of their ſcruples in this reſpect, and to depoſit at once, and with little ceremony, the remains of their relations in their final abode.

The following is the deſcription of a Chineſe funeral proceſſion, obſerved by Sir George Staunton, paſſing out of one of the gates of Pekin: "The proceſſion was preceded by ſeveral performers on ſolemn muſic; then followed a variety of inſignia, ſome of ſilken colours, and painted boards with devices and characters, diſplaying the rank and office of him who was no more. Immediately before the corpſe the male relations walked, each ſupported by friends, occupied in preventing them from giving way to the exceſſes and extravagance of grief, to which the appearance of their countenance implied that they were prone. Over the mourners were carried umbrellas with deep curtains hanging from the edges. Several perſons were employed to burn circular pieces of

paper, covered chiefly with tin-foil, as they paſſed by burying-grounds and temples. Theſe pieces, in the popular opinion, like the coin to Charon for being conveyed to the Elyſian fields, are underſtood to be convertible, in the next ſtage of exiſtence, into the means of providing the neceſſaries of life."

The public burying-grounds are extremely extenſive, owing to that reſpect paid to the dead by the Chineſe, which prevents them from opening a new grave upon any ſpot where the traces of a former one remain upon the ſurface.

Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather, before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chineſe language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one ſyllable; but then each word is pronounced with ſuch various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be eaſily imagined. The miſſionaries, who adapt the European characters as well as they can to the expreſſion of Chineſe words, have deviſed eleven different, and ſome of them very compounded, marks and aſpirations, to ſignify the various modulations, elevations, and depreſſions of the voice, which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral meanings of the ſame monoſyllable. The Chineſe oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and, therefore, their literature is all compriſed in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty thouſand. This language being wholly addreſſed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as ſpoken, the latter has ſtill continued in its original, rude, uncultivated ſtate, while the former has received all poſſible improvement.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chineſe is peculiar to themſelves: they have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet, in their gardening and planning their grounds, they exhibit the true ſublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and the metaphyſical learning which exiſted among them was only known to their philoſophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jeſuits were of very ſhort duration among them, and laſted very little longer than the reign of Canghi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very propable they will ever be revived. It has been generally ſaid, that they underſtood printing before the Europeans; but that can only be applied to block-printing; for the fuſile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chineſe, however, had almanacks, which were ſtamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was diſcovered in Europe.

The difficulty of maſtering and retaining ſuch a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chineſe written language greatly retards the progreſs of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with ſuch honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and purſue it. The literati are reverenced as another ſpecies, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever ſo

mean and low, they become mandarins of the higheſt rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly ſink into poverty and obſcurity, if they neglect thoſe ſtudies which raiſed their fathers. It has been obſerved, that there is no nation in the world where the firſt honours of the ſtate lies ſo open to the loweſt of the people, and where there is leſs of hereditary greatneſs. The Chineſe range all their works of literature into four claſſes. The firſt is the claſs of *King*, or the ſacred books, which contain the principles of the Chineſe religion, morality and government, and ſeveral curious and obſcure records, relative to theſe important ſubjects. Hiſtory forms a ſeparate claſs: yet, in this firſt claſs, there are placed ſome hiſtorical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the *Tekun tſicou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illuſtrious ſage. The ſecond claſs is that of the *Su*, or *Che*, that is, of hiſtory and the hiſtorians. The third claſs, called *Tſu*, or *Tſe*, comprehends philoſophy and the philoſophers, and contains all the works of the Chineſe literati, the productions alſo of foreign ſects and religions, which the Chineſe conſider only in the light of philoſophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, aſtronomy, phyſic, military ſcience, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and ſciences in general. The fourth is called *Tcie* or *Miſcellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chineſe, their pieces of eloquence, their ſongs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chineſe literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themſelves leſs to the ſtudy of nature, and to the reſearches of natural philoſophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical ſcience of life, and internal polity and manners. It is ſaid that it was not before the dynaſty of the Song in the 10th and 11th centuries after Chriſt, that the Chineſe philoſophers formed hypotheſes concerning the ſyſtem of the univerſe, and entered into diſcuſſions of a ſcholaſtic kind, in conſequence, perhaps, of the intercourſe they had long maintained with the Arabians, who ſtudied with ardour the works of Ariſtotle. And, ſince the Chineſe have begun to pay ſome attention to natural philoſophy, their progreſs in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is juſtly claimed by the Chineſe, who made uſe of it againſt Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They ſeem to have known nothing of ſmall fire arms, and to have been acquainted only with cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their induſtry in their manufactures of ſtuffs, porcelain, japanning, and the like ſedentary trades, is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curioſities preſent themſelves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanoes, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The Volcano of Lineſung is ſaid ſometimes to make ſo furious a diſcharge of fire and aſhes, as to occaſion a tempeſt in the air: and ſome of their lakes are ſaid to petrify fiſhes when put into them. The great wall ſeparating China from Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars, is ſuppoſed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches from the province of Shenſee to the Whang-Hay, or Yellow Sea. It is in moſt places built of brick and mortar, which is ſo well tempered, that though it has ſtood more than 2000

years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of ſtone raiſed in the ſea, in the province of Petchelee, to the eaſt of Peking, and almoſt in the ſame latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraſſed and caſed with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentlemen who took a map of theſe provinces, often ſtretched a line on the top, to meaſure the baſes of triangles, and to take diſtant points with an inſtrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt with eaſe.

The artificial mountains preſent, on their tops, temples, monaſteries, and other edifices. The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired. They are built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to be parted, and to let the veſſels paſs that ſail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long and 500 high, though a ſingle arch, and joins two mountains; and ſome in the interior parts of the empire are ſaid to be ſtill more ſtupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next ſpecies of artificial curioſities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman ſtyle of architecture, yet they are ſuperb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vaſt labour and expenſe. They are ſaid in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their ſepulchral monuments make likewiſe a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now ſo common in Europe, under the name of pagodas, are vaſt embelliſhments to the face of their country. They ſeem to be conſtructed by a regular order, and all of them are finiſhed with exquiſite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the moſt admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, becauſe it is lined with Chineſe tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taſte in which they are built, for their capaciouſneſs, their whimſical ornaments, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain. The Chineſe are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal feſtivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000 pounds, but its ſound is ſaid to be diſagreeable. Their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and ſuſceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleaſing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and preſent a diverſity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] The empire is ſaid to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary reſidence of the emperors, is ſituated in a very fertile plain twenty leagues diſtant from the great wall. It is an oblong ſquare, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, becauſe the houſes were given to the Tartars when the preſent family came to the throne; and they refuſing to ſuffer the Chineſe to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a ſhort time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, ſix leagues in compaſs. The walls and gates of Peking are of the ſurpriſing height of fifty cubits, ſo that they hide the whole city; and are ſo broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horſeback; for there are ſlopes within the city of conſiderable length, by which horſemen may aſcend the walls; and in ſeveral places there are houſes built for the guards. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither em-

belliſhed with ſtatues, nor other carving, all their beauty conſiſting in their prodigious height, which at a diſtance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the reſt with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Moſt of the ſtreets are built in a direct line; the largeſt are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The ſhops where they ſell ſilks and China-ware generally take up the whole ſtreet, and afford a very agreeable proſpect. Each ſhop-keeper places before his ſhop, on a ſmall kind of pedeſtal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varniſhed, and often gilt, on which are written, in large characters, the names of the ſeveral commodities he ſells. Theſe being placed on each ſide of the ſtreet, at nearly an equal diſtance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houſes are poorly built in front, and very low, moſt of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one ſtory above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the moſt remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not conſiſt ſo much in the nobleneſs and elegance of the architecture, as the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly diſpoſed; for within the walls are not only the emperor's houſe, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houſes of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Artier, a French Jeſuit, who was indulged with a ſight of the palace and gardens, ſays, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the building ſhines with gilding, paint, and varniſh, while the inſide is ſet off and furniſhed with every thing that is moſt beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raiſed, at proper diſtances, artificial mountains, from twenty to ſixty feet high, which form a number of ſmall valleys, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks ſail on theſe pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are ſaid to have any reſemblance to each other: which diverſity produces a very pleaſing effect. Every valley has its houſe of pleaſure, large enough to lodge one of our greateſt lords in Europe, with all his retinue: many of theſe houſes are built with cedar, brought, at a vaſt expenſe, the diſtance of 500 leagues. Of theſe palaces, or houſes of pleaſure, there are more than 200 in this vaſt incloſure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky iſland, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent ſtructure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly ſuch as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with ruſtic pieces of rock, diſpoſed with ſuch art, as exactly to reſemble the wildneſs of nature.

The eſtimated population of Peking was carried in the laſt century, by the Jeſuit Grimaldi, as quoted by Gimelli Carreri, to ſixteen millions. Another miſſionary reduces at leaſt that of the Tartar city to one million and a quarter. According to the beſt information given to the late Engliſh embaſſy, the whole was about three millions. The low houſes of Peking ſeem ſcarcely ſufficient for ſo vaſt a population; but very little room is occupied by a Chineſe family, at leaſt in the middling and lower claſſes of life. A Chineſe dwelling is generally ſurrounded by a wall ſix or ſeven feet high. Within this incloſure a whole family of three generations, with all their reſpective wives and children, will frequently be found. One ſmall room is made to ſerve for the indivi-

duals of each branch of the family, ſleeping in different beds, divided only by mats hanging from the ceiling. One common room is uſed for eating.

Nanking is ſaid to be ſtill more extenſive and populous than Peking; but Canton is the greateſt port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is above five miles in circumference, with very pleaſant walks around it. From the top of ſome adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine proſpect of the country. It is beautifully interſperſed with mountains, little hills, and valleys all green; and theſe again pleaſantly diverſified with ſmall towns, villages, high towers, temples, the ſeats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and ſmall branches from the river Ta; on which are numberleſs boats and junks, ſailing different ways through the moſt fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by ſeveral iron gates, and withinſide of each there is a guard-houſe. The ſtreets of Canton are very ſtraight, but generally narrow, paved with flag-ſtones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well ſtocked with images. The ſtreets of Canton are ſo crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any faſhion is ſeldom to be ſeen, unleſs by chance when coming out of her chair. There are great numbers of market-places for fiſh, fleſh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of proviſions, which are ſold very cheap. There are many private walks about the ſkirts of the town, where thoſe of the better ſort have their houſes, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whoſe buſineſs lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only ſhops and warehouſes. Few of the Chineſe traders of any ſubſtance keep their families in houſes where they do buſineſs, but either in the city, in the more remote ſuburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all ſuch a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the ſtreets, but in ſhops and places of public buſineſs, nor do any of their windows look towards thoſe of their neighbours. The ſhops of thoſe that deal in ſilk are very neat, make a fine ſhow, and are all in one place; for tradeſmen or dealers in one kind of goods herd together in the ſame ſtreet. It is computed that there is in this city, and its ſuburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading veſſels lying before the city.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is ſo happily ſituated, and produces ſuch a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be ſaid to be the native land of induſtry; but it is an induſtry without taſte or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatneſs. They make paper of the bark of bamboo and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink for the uſe of drawing is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of oil and lampblack. The antiquity of their printing, which they ſtill perform by cutting their characters on blocks of wood, has already been mentioned. The manufacture of that earthen-ware generally known by the name of China was long a ſecret in Europe, and brought immenſe ſums to that country. Though the Chineſe affect to keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulveriſed earth, and that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufacturing this commodity*.

* The Engliſh, in particular, have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commiſſions which have been received of late from ſeveral princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture ſo generally uſeful will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourſelves.

The Chineſe ſilks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are ſaid to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered. They manufacture ſilks likewiſe of a more durable kind; and their cotton and other cloths are famous for furniſhing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for ſuch is the pride and avarice of the Chineſe, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that, ſince the diſcovery of the porcelain manufacture, and the vaſt improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chineſe commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The original plan of the Chineſe government was patriarchal, almoſt in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the moſt rigorous manner; but, at the ſame time, the emperor was conſidered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of ſtate, were looked upon as his ſubſtitutes, and the degrees of ſubmiſſion which were due from the inferior ranks to the ſuperior were ſettled and obſerved with the moſt ſcrupulous preciſion, and in a manner that to us ſeems highly ridiculous. This ſimple claim of obedience required great addreſs and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chineſe legiſlators, Confucius particularly, appeared to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of myſtical appearances, ſo as to ſtrike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had peculiar modes of ſpeaking and writing, and the people were taught to believe that the princes partook of divinity; ſo that they were ſeldom ſeen, and more ſeldom approached. "In the great palace of Peking (ſays Sir George Staunton) all the mandarins reſident in the capital, aſſembled, about noon, on his imperial majeſty's birth-day, and, dreſſed in their robes of ceremony, made the uſual proſtrations before the throne; incenſe of ſandal and roſe woods burning upon it at the ſame time, and offerings being made of viands and liquors, as if, though abſent, he were capable of enjoying them. Mr. Barrow (a gentleman of the embaſſy) was preſent while the ſame ceremonies were obſerved at Yuen-min-yuen, and he was informed that they likewiſe took place on that day in every part of the empire, the proſtrators being every where attentive to turn their faces towards the capital. On all the days of new and full moon, ſimilar incenſe is burnt, and offerings are made before the throne by the officers of the houſehold in the ſeveral palaces of the emperor."

Though this ſyſtem preſerved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect, that often convulſed and at laſt proved fatal to the ſtate, becauſe the ſame attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chineſe had paſſions like other men; and ſometimes a weak or wicked adminiſtration drove them to arms, and a revolution eaſily ſucceeded, which they juſtified by ſaying that their ſovereign had ceaſed to be their father. During theſe commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours, the Tartars, to their aſſiſtance, who, poſſeſſing great ſagacity, became acquainted with the weak ſide of their conſtitution, and availed themſelves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire, and conforming to the Chineſe inſtitutions.

Beſides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chineſe had ſumptuary laws and regulations for the expenſes of all degrees of

year 213 before the Chriſtian æra, ordered all the hiſtorical books and ſubjects, which were very uſeful in preſerving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their inſtitutions, likewiſe, the mandarins might remonſtrate to the emperor, but in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner, upon the errors of his government; and, when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the moſt ſalutary effects. No country in the world is ſo well provided with magiſtrates for the diſcharge of juſtice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual, through want of public virtue, in the execution. The emperor is ſtyled "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

RELIGION.] There is in China no ſtate religion. None is paid, preferred, or encouraged by it. The Chineſe have no Sunday, nor even ſuch a diviſion as a week; the temples are, however, open every day for the viſits of devotees. Perſons of that deſcription have, from time to time, made grants, though to no great amount, for the maintenance of their clergy, but no lands are ſubject to eccleſiaſtical tithes. The emperor is of one faith; many of the mandarins of another; and the majority of the common people of a third, which is that of Fo. No people are, in fact, more ſuperſtitious than the common Chineſe. Beſide the habitual offices of devotion on the part of the prieſts and females, the temples are particularly frequented by the diſciples of Fo, previouſly to any undertaking of importance; whether to marry, or go a journey, or conclude a bargain, or change ſituation, or any other material event in life, it is neceſſary firſt to conſult the ſuperintendent deity. This is performed by various methods. Some place a parcel of conſecrated ſticks, differently marked and numbered, which the conſultant, kneeling before the altar, ſhakes in a hollow bamboo, until one of them falls on the ground; its mark is examined, and referred to a correſpondent mark in a book which the prieſt holds open, and ſometimes even it is written upon a piece of paper paſted upon the inſide of the temple. Polygonal pieces of wood are by others thrown into the air. Each ſide has its particular mark: the ſide that is uppermoſt, when fallen on the floor, is in like manner referred to its correſpondent mark in the book or ſheet of fate. If the firſt throw be favourable, the perſon who made it proſtrates himſelf in gratitude, and undertakes afterwards with confidence the buſineſs in agitation. But if the throw ſhould be adverſe, he tries a ſecond time, and the third throw determines, at any rate, the queſtion. In other reſpects the people of the preſent time ſeem to pay little attention to their prieſts. The temples are, however, always open for ſuch as chooſe to conſult the decrees of heaven. They return thanks when the oracle proves propitious to their wiſhes. Yet they often caſt lots to know the iſſue of a projected enterpriſe, then ſupplicate for its being favourable, and their worſhip conſiſts more in thankſgiving than in prayer.

The temples of Fo abound with more images than are found in moſt Chriſtian churches, ſome of which, as one of the miſſionaries has obſerved, exhibit ſo ſtrong a likeneſs to thoſe in churches of the Roman faith, that a Chineſe conveyed into one of the latter might imagine the votaries he ſaw were adoring the deities of his own country. On the altar of a Chineſe temple, behind a ſcreen, is frequently a repreſentation which might anſwer for that of the Virgin Mary, in the perſon of *Shin-moo*, or the ſacred mother, ſitting in an alcove with a child in her arms, and rays proceeding from a circle, which are called a glory, round her head, with tapers burning conſtantly before her. The re-

ſemblance of the worſhip of the Chineſe to the forms of the catholic church, in ſome other particulars, has been, indeed, thought ſo ſtriking, that ſome of the miſſionaries have conjectured that the Chineſe had formerly received a glimpſe of Chriſtianity from the Neſtorians, by the way of Tartary; others that St. Thomas the apoſtle had been among them: but the miſſionary Premare could account for it no otherwiſe than by ſuppoſing it to have been a trick of the devil to mortify the Jeſuits.

There are other images, however, in theſe temples, which bear a greater analogy to the ancient than to the preſent worſhip of the Romans. A figure, repreſenting a female, appears to be ſomething ſimilar to Lucina, and is particularly addreſſed by unmarried women wanting huſbands, and married women wanting children. The doctrine of Fo, admitting of a ſubordinate deity particularly propitious to every wiſh which can be formed in the human mind, could ſcarcely fail to ſpread among thoſe claſſes of the people who are not ſatisfied with their proſpects as reſulting from the natural cauſes of events. Its progreſs is not obſtructed by any meaſures of the government of the country, which does not interfere with mere opinions. It prohibit no belief, which is not ſuppoſed to affect the tranquillity of ſociety.

The temples of Peking are not very ſumptuous. The religion of the emperor is new in China, and its worſhip is performed with moſt magnificence in Tartary. The mandarins, the men of letters, from whom are ſelected the magiſtrates who govern the empire, and poſſeſs the upper ranks of life, venerate rather than adore Confucius, and meet to honour and celebrate his memory in halls of a ſimple but neat conſtruction. The numerous and lower claſſes of the people are leſs able than inclined to contribute much towards the erection of large and coſtly edifices for public worſhip. Their religious attention is much engaged beſides with their houſehold gods. Every houſe has its altar and its deities. The books of their mythology contain repreſentations of thoſe who preſide over their perſons and properties, as well as over exterior objects likely to affect them. Few of the Chineſe, however, carry the objects to be obtained by their devotion beyond the benefits of this life. Yet the religion of Fo profeſſes the doctrine of the tranſmigration of ſouls, and promiſes happineſs to the people on conditions, which were, no doubt, originally intended to conſiſt in the performance of moral duties; but, in lieu of which, are too frequently ſubſtituted thoſe of contributions towards the erection or repair of temples, the maintenance of prieſts, and a ſtrict attention to particular obſervances. The neglect of theſe is announced as puniſhable by the ſouls of the defaulters paſſing into the bodies of the meaneſt animals, in which the ſufferings are to be proportioned to the tranſgreſſion committed in the human form.

PUBLIC ROADS.] The ſecurity of travellers, and an eaſy mode of conveyance for paſſengers and merchandiſe of every kind, are objects to which particular attention ſeems to have been paid by adminiſtration in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed greatly contributed to the former.

Theſe roads are paved in all the ſouthern provinces, and ſome of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and paſſages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preſerve them as nearly as poſſible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and ſometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields.

Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a paſſage into croſs roads that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads, covered ſeats are erected at proper diſtances, where the traveller may ſhelter himſelf from the inclemency of the winter, or the exceſſive heats of the ſummer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the croſs roads. The former are very ſpacious, but they are badly ſupplied with proviſions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to ſleep on a plain mat. Government requires of thoſe who inhabit them, to give lodging only to thoſe who aſk and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets (ſays Mr. Bell) called poſt-houſes, erected at certain diſtances one from another, with a flag-ſtaff, on which is hoiſted the imperial pendant. Theſe places are guarded by ſoldiers, who run from one poſt to another with great ſpeed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in ſight of one another, and by ſignals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By theſe means the court is informed in the ſpeedieſt manner of whatever diſturbance may happen in the moſt remote parts of the empire.

REVENUES.] The public revenues of China proper (ſays Staunton) are ſaid to be little leſs than two hundred millions of ounces of ſilver, which may be equal to about ſixty-ſix millions of pounds ſterling, or about four times thoſe of Great Britain, and three times thoſe of France before the late ſubverſion. From the produce of the taxes, all the civil and military expenſes, and the incidental and extraordinary charges, are firſt paid upon the ſpot, out of the treaſuries of the reſpective provinces where ſuch expenſes are incurred; and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treaſury at Peking. This ſurplus amounted in the year 1792, according to an account taken from a ſtatement furniſhed by Chow-ta-Zhin, to the ſum of 36,614,328 ounces of ſilver, or 12,204,776l. A land tax was ſubſtituted in the laſt reign to the poll tax, as better proportioned to the faculties of individuals. Moſt imports, and all luxuries, are likewiſe taxed; but the duty being added to the original price of the article, is ſeldom diſtinguiſhed from it by the conſumer. A tranſit duty is laid likewiſe on goods paſſing from one province to another. Each province in China, which may be compared to an European kingdom, is noted chiefly for the production of ſome particular article, the conveyance of which, to ſupply the demand for it in the others, raiſes this duty to a conſiderable ſum, and forms the great internal commerce of the empire. Preſents from the tributaries and ſubjects of the emperor, and the confiſcations of opulent criminals, are not overlooked in enumerating the revenues of the public treaſury. Taxes, ſuch as upon rice, are received in kind. The ſeveral ſpecies of grain, on which many of the poorer claſſes of the people principally ſubſiſt, are exempted from taxation: ſo is wheat, to which rice is always preferred by the Chineſe.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conqueſt by the eaſtern Tartars, in 1644. This is owing to the conſummate policy of Chuntchi, the firſt Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary ſubjects to conform themſelves to the Chineſe manners and policy, and the Chineſe to wear the Tartar dreſs and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chineſe were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the ſeat of his govern-

ment, and the Tartars quietly ſubmitted to a change of their country and condition, which was ſo much in their favour.

According to the information given to the gentlemen of the Engliſh embaſſy by Van-ta-Zhin, who was himſelf a diſtinguiſhed officer, and appeared to give his account with candour, though not always, perhaps, with ſufficient care and accuracy, the total of the army in the pay of China, including Tartars, amounted to one million infantry, and eight hundred thouſand cavalry. From the obſervation made by the embaſſy, in the courſe of their travels through the empire, of the garriſons in the cities of the ſeveral orders, and of the military poſts at ſmall diſtances from each other, there appeared nothing improbable in the calculation of the infantry: but they met few cavalry. If the number mentioned really do exiſt, a great proportion of them muſt be in Tartary, or on ſome ſervice diſtant from the route of the embaſſy. As to the marine force, it is compoſed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned, and other ſmall ſhips that trade coaſt-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent ſudden deſcents.

A treatiſe on the military art, tranſlated from the Chineſe into the French language, was publiſhed at Paris, in 1772, from which it appears that the Chineſe are well verſed in the theory of the art of war: but caution, and care, and circumſpection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themſelves.

History.] The Chineſe pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all meaſure of credibility, and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the Scripture chronology aſſigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is ſaid by them to have been the firſt man, and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Chriſt 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But, upon an accurate inveſtigation of this ſubject, it appears, that all the Chineſe hiſtorical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Chriſt, are entirely fabulous, compoſed in modern times, unſupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears alſo, that the origin of the Chineſe empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for the Chineſe hiſtory are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 608 volumes, and conſiſt of the pieces that have been compoſed by the tribunal or department of hiſtory, eſtabliſhed in China, for tranſmitting to poſterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and tranſactions of its ſovereigns. It is ſaid, that all the facts which concern the monarchy, ſince its foundation, have been depoſited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of times under the inſpection of government, and with all the precautions againſt illuſion or partiality that could be ſuggeſted. Theſe precautions have been carried ſo far, that the hiſtory of the reign of each imperial family has only been publiſhed after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound ſecret during the dynaſty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is aſſerted, that many of the Chineſe hiſtorians expoſed themſelves to exile, and even to death, rather than diſguiſe the defects and vices of the ſovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, at whoſe command the great wall was built, in the

records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt, with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but, though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller numbers for more remote periods. But, notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 608 volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French nation. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in 100 volumes, was published in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgement. From these materials the abbé Grosier proposed to publish at Paris, in the French language, a General History of China, in 12 volumes 4to. some of which have been printed; and a smaller work in 12 volumes 8vo. by the late Father de Mailla, missionary at Peking, has lately been published.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history; and which, indeed, would be very uninteresting to the generality of European readers. A succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history is enveloped in mysteries, their Li-Laokum, and, above all, their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacific, and they were attended with the most bloody exterminations in some provinces: so that, though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession was more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynasties, or different tribes and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zingis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. Their celebrated wall proved but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthless emperor, Tsong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while, a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tse, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-san-quey, the Chinese general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refused to recognise the usurper, and made a peace with Tsongate, or Chun-tchi, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which compoſed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the ſettlements which they had under the Ruſſian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Iaick, at a ſmall diſtance from the Caſpian Sea, and, in a vaſt body of fifty thouſand families, paſſed through the country of the Haſacks; after a march of eight months, in which they ſurmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontiers of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themſelves as ſubjects to Kien-Lung, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-ſixth year of his reign. He received them graciouſly, furniſhed them with proviſions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and paſturage. The year following there was a ſecond emigration of about thirty thouſand other Tartar families, who alſo quitted the ſettlements which they enjoyed under the Ruſſian government, and ſubmitted to the Chineſe ſceptre. The emperor cauſed the hiſtory of theſe emigrations to be engraven upon ſtone in four different languages.

The hopes which were lately indulged of the great and manifold advantages to be derived from the embaſſy of lord Macartney to the court of Peking have ended in diſappointment. Never, perhaps, was there a character better qualified for the management of an embaſſy of ſuch delicacy and importance than lord Macartney: but, notwithſtanding his lordſhip's adroitneſs, he found it utterly impoſſible to obtain permiſſion for the reſidence of an Engliſhman at the capital of China, as embaſſador, conſul, or in any other character, or any excluſive ſettlement for the Engliſh within the Chineſe dominions, even on a temporary grant, and ſolely for the purpoſes of trade. According to a fundamental principle in Chineſe politics, innovation, of whatever kind, is held to be inevitably pregnant with ruin; and on this principle the emperor declined to admit a foreign reſident at the court of Peking, or to expand the principles on which our commercial intercourſe with this country are at preſent regulated and confined.

The embaſſy arrived in the river Pei-ho, in the Gulf of Peking, the beginning of Auguſt 1793, and on the 21ſt of the ſame month reached the city of Peking. They remained here till the beginning of September, when they were conducted to Zhe-hol, or Jehol, one of the emperor's country reſidences in Tartary, diſtant about forty or fifty leagues from Peking. Here they had their audience of the emperor, who accepted the preſents they had brought in the moſt gracious manner, and returned others of great value, of which two are ſo ſingular as to claim particular notice. The one is a poem addreſſed to his Britannic majeſty, the compoſition of the emperor himſelf, and his own hand-writing: it is lodged in a black, wooden, carved box, of no great value, but as an antique, to which character it has a juſt claim, having been two thouſand years in the poſſeſſion of the imperial family of China. The other preſent is a maſs of coſtly agate, of unequalled ſize and beauty. It has always been the practice with the emperor to hold this agate in his hand, and to fix his eyes upon it, whenever he ſpoke to a mandarin, or any of his miniſters; as to look upon a ſubject is conſidered as not only derogatory to the imperial dignity, but to confer too much honour on the individual addreſſed.

Kien-Lung, the late emperor of China, appeared, at the time he gave audience to the embaſſy, to be perfectly unreſerved, cheerful, and unaffected; his eyes were full and clear, and his countenance open. He was clad in plain dark ſilk, with a velvet bonnet, in form not much different from the bonnet of Scotch Highlanders; on the front of it was placed a large pearl, which was the only jewel or ornament he appeared to have about him.

# HINDOSTAN, or INDIA. from the best AUTHORITIES.

Remarks

Territories ceded to the British by Tippoo Sultan according to the Partition Treaty made at Seringapatam 1792 ..... 1
Do ..... to the Nizam ..... 2
Do ..... to the Paishwah ..... 3

CABUL
LAHORE
MOULTAN
DELHI
AGRA
AGIMERE
SINDY
GUTCH
MALWA
GUZERAT
CANDEISH
BERAR
DOWLETABAD
AURUNGABAD
MYSORE
ALLAHABAD
BAHAR
OUDE
NAPAUL
BOOTAN
ASSAM
BENGAL
ORISSA
CIRCARS
GUNTOOR
BIJAPOOR
VISIAPOOR
BALLAGHAUT
CANARA
MALABAR
TRAVANCORE
COIMBETOOR
BARAMAHL
CARNATIC
MADURA
TANJORE
TRICHINOPOLY
MECKLEY
ROSHAAN
ARACAN
PEGU
BURMAH
Part of THIBET
CHINA
INDIAN OCEAN
BAY OF BENGAL
LACADIVE ISLANDS
MALDIVE ISLANDS
CEYLON
NICOBAR ISLANDS
ARCHIPELAGO OF MERGUI
Great Andeman Island
Duncans Id: Andeman I.
Carnicobar I.
Sombrere Channel
Gulf of Manara
Gulf of Cambay
Mouths of the Indus or Sinde
Mouths of the Ganges
Mouths of the Ava
Cabul
Lahore
Delhi
Agimere
Agra
Lucknow
Allah abad
Patna
Benares
Calcutta
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Surat
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Boogbooge
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Diu I.
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Monze
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Schulpax I.
Malicoy
Cape Comorin
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Coimbatoor
Dindigul
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Adoni
Bednore
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Mysore
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Sera
Gorumconda
Chittledroog
Budnoor
Ryadroog
Ananpoor
Penacoor
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Beder
Kalberga
Firozpur
Mundapoor
Ryehore
Panganoor
Tajanur
Sattara
Sackar
Poonah
Chaoul
Dabool
Zygur
Gheriah
Vingorla
Carwar Bay & I.
Ahmednagur
Jaffeerabad
Arungabad
Pahlelgong
Dowlatabad
Jalnah
Burhanpour
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Columbo
Calitoor
Tangalle
Lit: Bassas
Gr. Bassas
Maldive Islands
Point de Galle
Lahore
Moultan
Delhi
Agra
Agimere
Lucknow
Allah abad
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Calcutta
Bombay
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British Statute Miles. 50 100 200 300

66 69 72 75 78 81 84 87 90 93 96 99 Longitude East from London

33 30 27 24 21 18 15 12 9 6 Latitude

Kien-Lung, the late emperor of China, was only the fourth ſovereign of the Tartar dynaſty which took poſſeſſion of the throne of that country about the year 1644. He aſcended the throne of China in 1736, and died February 11, 1799. He was ſucceeded by Ka-Hing, the preſent emperor, who, immediately on his acceſſion to the throne, degraded and impriſoned Ho-choong-taung, the prime miniſter of his predeceſſor. This miniſter was in power at the time of lord Macartney's embaſſy, and was ſuppoſed to be very hoſtile to the object of it: his diſgrace has given hopes that ſuch another attempt might now prove ſucceſsful.

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## INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.] THIS vaſt country is ſituated between the 66th and 109th degrees of Eaſt longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North by the countries of Uſbec Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian Ocean; on the Eaſt, by China and the Chineſe Sea; and, on the Weſt, by Perſia and the Indian Sea.

DIVISIONS.] We ſhall divide, as others have done, India at large, into three greater parts: firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Farther Peninſula; ſecondly, the Main Land of Hindooſtan, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninſula within, or on this ſide the Ganges; all of them vaſt, populous, and extended empires. But it is neceſſary, in order to ſave many repetitions, to premiſe an account of ſome particulars that are in common to thoſe numerous nations, which ſhall be extracted from the moſt enlightened of our modern writers, who have viſited the country in the ſervice of the Eaſt-India company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT.] The Mahometans, or, as they are called Moors, of Hindooſtan, are computed, according to Mr. Orme, an excellent and authentic hiſtorian, to be about ten millions, and the Indians about a hundred millions. Above half the empire is ſubject to rajahs or kings, who derive their deſcent from the old princes of India, and exerciſe all rights of ſovereignty, only paying a tribute to the Great Mogul, and obſerving the treaties by which their anceſtors recogniſed his ſuperiority. In other reſpects, the government of Hindooſtan is full of wiſe checks upon the overgrowing greatneſs of any ſubject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the adminiſtration) the indolence and barbarity of the Moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitleſs.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindooſtan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legiſlator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was ſome great and good man, whoſe beneficence, like that of the pagan legiſlators, led his people and their poſterity to pay him divine honours. The Brahmins, or Gentoo prieſts, pretend, that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vedam, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions; and that, though the original is loſt, they are ſtill poſſeſſed of a commentary upon it, called the Shaſtah, which is wrote in the Shanſcrit, now a dead language, and known only to the Brahmins.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſupe-

rior, and ſome inferior to man; and in the immortality of the ſoul, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, which is to conſiſt of a tranſmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempſychoſis took its riſe in India. The neceſſity of inculcating this ſublime, but otherwiſe complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Brahmins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of the Deity and his attributes; ſo that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated into idolatry, in the worſhip of different animals, and various images, of the moſt hideous figures, delineated or carved.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The firſt and moſt noble tribe are the Brahmins, who alone can officiate in the prieſthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are ſtrictly prohibited from all menial offices, by their laws. The ſecond in order is the Sittri tribe, who, according to their original inſtitution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other profeſſions. The third is the tribe of Beiſe, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias, or ſhop-keepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial ſervants; and they are incapable of raiſing themſelves to any ſuperior rank. If any one of them ſhould be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his poſterity are for ever ſhut out from the ſociety of every perſon in the nation, excepting that of the Harricaſt, who are held in utter deteſtation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meaneſt and vileſt offices. This circumſtance renders excommunication ſo dreadful, that any Hindoo will ſuffer the torture, and even death itſelf, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Beſides this diviſion into tribes, the Gentoos are alſo ſubdivided into caſts and ſmall claſſes or tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of theſe caſts, though ſome have ſuppoſed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the caſts, in a particular city or province, is generally indiſputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himſelf honoured by adopting the cuſtoms of a ſuperior caſt: but this latter would give battle ſooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a ſuperior caſt with reſpect, but the ſuperior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior caſt. Their marriages are circumſcribed by the ſame barriers as the reſt of their intercourſes; and hence, beſides the national phyſiognomy, the members of each caſt preſerve an air of ſtill greater reſemblance to one another. There are ſome caſts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarked for their uglineſs.

The members of each caſt, ſays Dr. Robertſon, adhere invariably to the profeſſion of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the ſame families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life. To this may be aſcribed that high degree of perfection conſpicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their anceſtors may check the ſpirit of invention, yet, by adhering to theſe, they acquire ſuch an expertneſs and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of ſuperior ſcience, and the aid of more complete inſtruments, have never been able

to equal the exquiſite execution of their workmanſhip. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce of other nations, the ſeparation of profeſſions in India, and the early diſtribution of the people into claſſes attached to particular kinds of labour, ſecured ſuch abundance of the more common and uſeful commodities, as not only ſupplied their own wants, but miniſtered to thoſe of the countries around them.

To this early diviſion of the people into caſts, we muſt likewiſe aſcribe a ſtriking peculiarity in the ſtate of India; the permanence of its inſtitutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is ſtill likely to continue; neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticiſm of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European maſters, have effected any conſiderable alterations. The ſame diſtinctions of condition take place, the ſame arrangements in civil and domeſtic ſociety remain, the ſame maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the ſame ſciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the ſame; gold and ſilver have uniformly been carried thither in order to purchaſe the ſame commodities with which it now ſupplies all nations; and, from the age of Pliny to the preſent times, it has always been conſidered and execrated as a gulf which ſwallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows inceſſantly towards it, and from which it never returns*.

All theſe caſts acknowledge the Brahmins for their prieſts, and from them derive their belief of the tranſmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themſelves even at the death of a fly, although occaſioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of caſts are leſs ſcrupulous, and eat, although very ſparingly, both of fiſh and fleſh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice and vegetables, dreſſed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter ſpices, which grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly in their gardens. They eſteem milk the pureſt of foods, becauſe they think it partakes of ſome of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and becauſe they eſteem the cow itſelf almoſt like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happineſs conſiſts in the ſolaces of a domeſtic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indiſpenſable duty in every man, who does not entirely ſeparate himſelf from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion alſo permits them to have ſeveral wives; but they ſeldom have more than one; and it has been obſerved, that their wives are diſtinguiſhed by a decency of demeanour, a ſolicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the moſt civiliſed countries. The amuſements of the Hindoos conſiſt in going to their pagodas, in aſſiſting at religious ſhows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies preſcribed to them by the Brahmins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own ſhores †; nor do they want any thing from abroad. They

* Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtorical Diſquiſition concerning India, Appendix, p. 261, 262.

† The Gentoos are perſuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kiſtna, and Indus, have the ſacred virtue of purifying thoſe who bathe in them from all pollutions and ſins. This religious idea ſeems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to reſtrain the natives from migrating into diſtant countries: for it is remarkable, that the ſacred rivers are ſo ſituated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of waſhing away their ſins. The Ganges, which riſes in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcunde, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kiſtna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Viſiapore into the interior parts of the Deccan. And the Indus, bounding the Guzurat provinces, ſeparates Hindooſtan from the dominions of Perſia.

might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happineſs, if others had looked on them with the ſame indifference with which they regard the reſt of the world.

The ſoldiers are commonly called rajah-poots, or perſons deſcended from rajahs, and reſide chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the ſouthern provinces, who are quite black. Theſe rajah-poots are a robuſt, brave, faithful people, and enter into the ſervice of thoſe who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finiſhed, and they run off the field without any ſtain upon their reputation.

The cuſtom of women burning themſelves upon the death of their huſbands ſtill continues to be practiſed, though much leſs frequently than formerly. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chineſe; and there ſcarcely is an inſtance of a robbery in all Hindooſtan, though the diamond merchants travel without defenſive weapons.

RELIGION.] The inſtitutions of religion, publicly eſtabliſhed in all the extenſive countries ſtretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, preſent to view an aſpect nearly ſimilar. They form a regular and complete ſyſtem of ſuperſtition, ſtrengthened and upheld by every thing which can excite the reverence and ſecure the attachment of the people. The temples conſecrated to their deities are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the moſt exquiſite works in painting and ſculpture, which the artiſts higheſt in eſtimation among them were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worſhip are pompous and ſplendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all the tranſactions of common life, but conſtitutes an eſſential part of them. The Brahmins, who, as miniſters of religion, preſide in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be ſacred. They have eſtabliſhed among themſelves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which, by ſecuring ſubordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more abſolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they ſupport by the command of the immenſe revenues with which the liberality of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched their pagodas.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are ſtupendous, but diſguſtful ſtone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Brahmins. To this, however, there are ſome exceptions; for, in proportion to the progreſs of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the ſtructure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taſte of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly-finiſhed ſtyle there are pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Hindooſtan, particularly in the ſouthern provinces, which are not expoſed to the deſtructive violence of Mahomedan zeal. In order to aſſiſt our readers in forming a proper idea of theſe buildings, we ſhall briefly deſcribe two, of which we have the moſt accurate accounts. The entry to the pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the Coromandel coaſt, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is by a ſtately gate, under a pyramid, a hundred and twenty-two feet in height, built with large ſtones above forty feet long, and more than five feet ſquare, and covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immenſe variety of figures, neatly

executed. The whole ſtructure extends one thouſand three hundred and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-ſix in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finiſhed with an elegance entitled to admiration.

The pagoda of Seringham, ſuperior in ſanctity to that of Chillambrum, ſurpaſſes it as much in grandeur. This pagoda is ſituated about a mile from the weſtern extremity of the iſland of Seringham, formed by the diviſion of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is compoſed of ſeven ſquare incloſures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. Theſe incloſures are three hundred and fifty feet diſtant from one another, and each has four large gates with a ſquare tower, which are placed, one in the middle of each ſide of the incloſures, and oppoſite to the four cardinal points.—The outward wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the ſouth is ornamented with pillars, ſeveral of which are ſingle ſtones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and thoſe which form the roof are ſtill larger: in the inmoſt incloſures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Brahmins live in a ſubordination which knows no reſiſtance, and ſlumber in a voluptuouſneſs which knows no wants *."

If the Brahmins are maſters of any uncommon art or ſcience, they frequently turn it to the purpoſes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that they know how to calculate eclipſes; and that judicial aſtrology is ſo prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head aſtrologer being always conſulted in their councils. The Mahomedans likewiſe encourage thoſe ſuperſtitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo induſtry as belonging to themſelves. Though the Gentoos are entirely paſſive, under all their oppreſſions, and, by their ſtate of exiſtence, the practice of their religion, and the ſcantineſs of their food, have nothing of that reſentment in their nature that animates the reſt of mankind; yet they are ſuſceptible of avarice, and ſometimes bury their money, and, rather than diſcover it, put themſelves to death by poiſon or otherwiſe. This practice, which it ſeems is not uncommon, accounts for the vaſt ſcarcity of ſilver that, till of late, prevailed in Hindooſtan.

The reaſons above mentioned account likewiſe for their being leſs under the influence of their paſſions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual uſe of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nouriſhment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of their women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are, therefore, not to wonder at their being ſoon ſtrangers to all perſonal exertion and vigour of mind; and it is with them a frequent ſaying, that it is better to ſit than to walk, to lie down than to ſit, to ſleep than to wake, and death is the beſt of all.

The Mahometans, who, in Hindooſtan, are called Moors, are of Perſian, Turkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Hindooſtan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They ſettled colonies in ſeveral places, whoſe deſcendents are called Tytaus; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul govern-

* Orme's Hiſt. of Milit. Tranſact. of Hindooſtan, vol. i. p. 178.

ment, which ſtill ſubſiſts. Thoſe princes being ſtrict Mahomedans, received under their protection all that profeſſed the ſame religion, and who being a brave active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they appointed ſoubahs; and thoſe provinces, each of which may be ſtyled an empire, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips; each nabob being immediately accountable to his ſoubah, who, in proceſs of time, became almoſt independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar tribes has likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahomedan government; but it is obſervable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all thoſe adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horſes and their ſwords, degenerated into eaſtern indolence and ſenſuality.

Of all thoſe tribes, the Mahrattas at preſent make the greateſt figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Hindooſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active ſpirits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that the Mahomedans, or Moors, are void of every principle, even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hoſpitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will ſtab him to the heart. But it is probable that theſe repreſentations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The people of Hindooſtan are governed by no written laws; nor is there a lawyer in their whole empire; and their courts of juſtice are directed by precedents. The Mahomedan inſtitutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that ſtate even down to the ſubtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each diſtrict. The imperial demeſne lands are thoſe of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his ſucceſſors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are beſtowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and, upon their death, revert to the emperor; but the rights of the ſubtenants, even of thoſe lands, are indefeaſible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long ſubſiſted, without almoſt the ſemblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was ſhaken, however, after the invaſion of Mahomed Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by ſo great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the ſoubahs and nabobs became abſolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies, and ſupport their power; ſo that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-maſters, were left to periſh through want. To ſum up the miſery of the inhabitants, thoſe ſoubahs and nabobs, and other Mahomedan governors, employ the Gentoos themſelves, and ſome even of the Brahmins, as the miniſters of their rapaciouſneſs and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever ſince the invaſion of Kouli Khan, Hindooſtan, from being a well-regulated government, is become a ſcene of mere anarchy or ſtratocracy; every great man pre-

tects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Hindoostan.

The complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account of the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane, and his great generals.

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## The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 2000<br>Breadth 1000 | between | 1 and 30 North latitude.<br>92 and 109 East longitude. | 741,500 |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China on the North; by China and the Chinese Sea on the East: by the same sea and the Straits of Malacca on the South; and by the Bay of Bengal and the Hither India on the West. The space between Bengal and China is now called the province of Mecklus, and other districts subject to the king of Ava, or Burmah.

| G. divis. | Subdivis. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| On the north-west, | Acham. | Chamdara | |
| | Ava | Ava | |
| | Aracan | Aracan | 180,000 |
| On the south-west, | Pegu | Pegu, E. long. 97. N. lat. 17-30 | 50,000 |
| | Martaban | Martaban | |
| | Siam | Siam, E. long. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18 | 170,000 |
| | Malacca | Malacca, E. long. 101. N. lat. 2-12 | 48,000 |
| On the north-east, | Tonquin | Cachao, or Keccio, E. long. 105. N. lat. 21-30 | 112,000 |
| | Laos | Lanchang | 59,4000 |
| On the south-east, | C. China | Thoanoa | 61,900 |
| | Cambod. | Cambodia | |
| | Chiampa | Padram | 60,200 |

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which, of all others, was the best known to the Persians. The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The air of the southern parts of this country is hot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so

that the people build their houſes upon high pillars, to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of ſeaſons, but wet and dry. Eaſterly and weſterly *monſoons*, or trade winds, prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe run from north to ſouth almoſt the whole length of the country; but the lands near the ſea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon.

RIVERS.] The chief are the Sampoo or Burrampooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river *Nou Kian*.

Of theſe, the Burrampooter, called Sampoo, in the upper part of its courſe, is by far the moſt conſiderable. This rival ſiſter of the Ganges iſſues from the ſame mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary, i. e. an eaſterly direction, through Thibet, winds to the ſouth-weſt through Aſſam; and, entering Hindooſtan, flows to the ſouth, aſſumes the name of Megna, and joins the weſtern branch of the Ganges with an immenſe body of water, equal, if not ſuperior, to the Ganges itſelf.

Theſe two noble rivers, when they approach the ſea, divide into ſuch a multitude of channels, and receive ſuch a number of navigable ſtreams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain in extent, enjoys by their means the fineſt inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives conſtant employment to 30,000 boatmen. Theſe channels are ſo numerous, that very few places in this tract are, even in the dry ſeaſon, 25 miles from a navigable ſtream; and in the ſeaſon of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertiliſes the ſoil to the extent of more than 100 miles *.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The ſtraits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banſac.

SOIL, AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS.] The ſoil of this peninſula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delightful fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables; alſo ſaltpetre, and the beſt teek timber, or Indian oak, which for ſhip-building in warm climates is ſuperior to any European oak. It abounds likewiſe in ſilks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domeſtic and wild, that are common in the ſouthern kingdoms of Aſia. The natives carry on a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the moſt healthful country of all the peninſula. In ſome places, eſpecially towards the north, the inhabitants have ſwellings in their throats, ſaid to be owing to the badneſs of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Tonquineſe are excellent mechanics, and fair traders; but greatly oppreſſed by their king and great lords. The king engroſſes the trade, and his factors ſell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquineſe are fond of lacker houſes, which are unwholeſome and poiſonous. The people in the ſouth are a ſavage race, and go almoſt naked, with large ſilver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or ſhell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two ſexes are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable by their dreſs, which reſembles that of the Perſians. The people of quality are fond of Engliſh broad-cloth, red or green; and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the

* Major Rennell's Memoir, p. 255.

beſt countries in Aſia, the inhabitants prefer dog's fleſh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, becauſe the king is ſole proprietor of all the gold and ſilver and other metals found in his kingdom. They live, however, eaſily and comfortably. Almoſt every houſekeeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women,—polygamy being practiſed all over India.

It is unqueſtionable, that thoſe Indians, as well as the Chineſe, had the uſe of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally aſcribed to the Azimeſe. The inhabitants of the ſouthern diviſion of this peninſula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious ſuperſtitions that prevail in this peninſula are extremely groſs, yet the people believe in a future ſtate; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and ſuch veſſels of gold and ſilver as they think can be of uſe to them in their future life. The people of this peninſula are commonly very fond of ſhow, and often make an appearance beyond their circumſtances. They are delicate in no part of their dreſs but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathſome; for, beſides dogs, they eat rats, mice, ſerpents, and ſtinking fiſh. The people of Aracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to conſummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women moſt when in a ſtate of pregnancy. Their treatment of the ſick is ridiculous, beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is expoſed on the bank of ſome river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

The diverſions common in this country are fiſhing and hunting, the celebrating of feſtivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Perſian, but in this peninſula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already obſerved, interſperſed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Brahmins, who are the tribe of the prieſthood, deſcend from thoſe Brachmans who are mentioned to us with ſo much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philoſophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their anceſtors, as prieſts, their religious doctrines are ſtill implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the ſource of all the knowledge which exiſts in Hindooſtan. But the utmoſt ſtretch of their mathematical knowledge ſeems to be the calculation of eclipſes. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatiſes on rhetoric; their ideas of muſic, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no aſſiſtance from the knowledge of anatomy, ſince diſſections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Aſiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their hiſtorians very diffuſe and verboſe; but, though the manner of eaſtern compoſitions differs from the correct taſte of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Aſiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow obſerves, that in the Shanſcrit, or learned language of the Brahmins, which is the grand repoſitory of the religion, philoſophy, and hiſtory of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in proſe, which treat of the ancient Indians and their hiſtory. The ſame writer alſo remarks, that the Shanſcrit records con-

tain accounts of the affairs of the Weſtern Aſia, very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have tranſmitted to poſterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally ſo much prejudiced againſt the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow obſerves, that the ſmall progreſs which correctneſs and elegance of ſentiment and diction have made in the Eaſt did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patroniſed men of letters with more generoſity and reſpect than the Mahomedan emperors of Hindooſtan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which muſt aſtoniſh Europeans, but an infallible road for riſing to the firſt offices of the ſtate. The character of the learned was at the ſame time ſo ſacred, that tyrants, who made a paſtime of imbruing their hands in the blood of their other ſubjects, not only abſtained from offering violence to men of genius, but ſtood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Theſe vary in the different countries of this peninſula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in ſome parts, are obliged to manufacture their ſalt out of aſhes. In all handicraft trades that they underſtand, the people are more induſtrious, and better workmen, than moſt of the Europeans; and in weaving, ſewing, embroidering, and ſome other manufactures, it is ſaid, that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineneſs of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and ſilver, are beyond any thing of thoſe kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in ſhort, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been ſo from the earlieſt ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time: and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their higheſt materials of luxury. The greateſt ſhare of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centred in England, though that of the Dutch is ſtill conſiderable; that of the French has for ſome time declined; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES.] This article is ſo extenſive, that it requires a ſlight review of the kingdoms that form this peninſula. In Azem, it has been already obſerved the king is proprietor of all the gold and ſilver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul: his capital is Ghergong, or Kirganu. We know very little of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently ſubject to the kings of Aracan; and that they ſend to the Chineſe gold and ſilk, for which they receive ſilver in return.

Aracan lies to the ſouth of Tipra, and was formerly governed by twelve princes, ſubject to the chief king, who reſided in his capital.—His palace was very large; and contained, as we are told ſeven idols caſt in gold, of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered with diamonds and other precious ſtones. At preſent Aracan makes a part of the empire of Ava, having been conquered by Minderagee, the preſent ſovereign of that country, in 1783. Pegu is about 350 Engliſh miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. Its capital, Pegu, on a river of the ſame name, was, about the year 1600, one of the largeſt,

and moſt ſplendid, and populous cities in all Aſia. The emperor of this country was anciently a very rich and powerful monarch; but about the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, Pegu was conquered by the king of Ava or Birmah, and the kingdoms united; till about the year 1740, when the Peguers rebelled, and in a few years ſubdued, in their turn, the kingdom of Ava. In 1754, however, the Birmans, under Alompra, who became their ſovereign, ſhook off the yoke, and again ſubdued Pegu, which now forms a part of the Birman empire.

Ava, Birmah, or, as it is called by the natives, Miama, is bounded on the weſt by a ridge of lofty mountains which divide it from Aracan; on the north-eaſt and eaſt by China and Siam; and on the ſouth by Pegu. The Birman empire conſiſts of Ava, Pegu, and Aracan, which are now all ſubject to one ſovereign. It is difficult to aſcertain the exact limits of this empire; but according to major Symes, in his account of an embaſſy to Ava, in the year 1795, it appears to include the ſpace between the 9th and 26th degrees of north latitude, and between the 92d and 107th degree of longitude eaſt of Greenwich; being about 1050 geographical miles in length, and 600 in breadth. The number of cities, towns, and villages, in the Birman dominions, major Symes was aſſured by a perſon who might be ſuppoſed to know, amounts to 8000; from which the population of the whole empire, including Aracan, may be ſuppoſed to be not leſs than ſeventeen millions.

The climate of Ava is extremely ſalubrious; the ſeaſons are regular, and the extremes of heat and cold ſeldom experienced; at leaſt the duration of the intenſe heat, which immediately precedes the commencement of the rainy ſeaſon, is very ſhort. The ſoil is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the fineſt parts of Bengal. Sugar-canes, tobacco of a ſuperior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits, in perfection, are all indigenous products of this fertile country. The kingdom of Ava abounds in minerals: it contains mines of gold, ſilver, rubies, and ſapphires; it alſo affords amethyſts, garnets, very beautiful chryſolites, jaſper, loadſtone, and marble. An extenſive trade is carried on between the capital of the Birman dominions and Yunan in China. The principal article of export from Ava is cotton. Amber, ivory, precious ſtones, beetle-nut, and the edible neſts brought from the eaſtern archipelago, are alſo articles of commerce.

The general diſpoſition of the Birmans is ſtrikingly contraſted with that of the natives of Hindooſtan, from whom they are ſeparated only by a narrow ridge of mountains, in many places admitting of an eaſy intercourſe. Notwithſtanding the ſmall extent of this barrier, the phyſical difference between the nations could ſcarcely be greater, had they been ſituated at the oppoſite extremities of the globe. The Birmans are a lively inquiſitive race, active, iraſcible, and impatient; the character of their Bengal neighbours it is well known is the reverſe.—The unworthy paſſion of jealouſy, which prompts moſt nations of the Eaſt to immure their women within the walls of a haram, and ſurround them with guards, ſeems to have ſcarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. The wives and daughters of the Birmans are not concealed from the ſight of men, and are ſuffered to have as free intercourſe with each other as the rules of European ſociety admit. The Birmans are extremely fond both of poetry and muſic. Their religion is, in fact, that of the Hindoos, though they are not votaries of Brama, but ſectaries of Boodh.

The emperor of Ava, like the other ſovereigns of the Eaſt, is a deſ-

potic monarch. The prevailing characteriſtic of the Birman court is pride. Like the ſovereign of China, his majeſty of Ava acknowledges no equal. There are no hereditary dignities or employments in the Birman government. All honours and offices, on the demiſe of the poſſeſſor, revert to the crown. The titles the monarch aſſumes in his public acts are the "Lord of earth and air; the monarch of extenſive countries; the proprietor of all kinds of precious ſtones; the king who performs the ten duties incumbent on all kings; the maſter of the white, red, and mottled elephants, whoſe praiſes are repeated far as the influence of the ſun and moon extends."

Alompra, who, as mentioned above, in 1754 recovered the independence of his country, and ſubdued the Peguers, was a Birman originally, of low extraction, who collected a band of reſolute adventurers, defeated the Peguers, and rendered himſelf ſovereign of Ava. He died in 1760, and was ſucceeded by Namdogee Praw, who died in 1764, leaving the throne to his brother Shembuan. The preſent ſovereign is named Shembuan Minderagee Praw. He is the fourth ſon of Alompra, and aſcended the throne in 1782.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos formerly included that of Jangoma, or Jangomay; but that is now ſubject to Ava: we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is ſaid to be immenſely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities, as well as the groſs ſuperſtitions of the Eaſt, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one ſovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is abſolutely deſpotic, and lives in inexpreſſible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the ſlave of his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Siam is rich and flouriſhing, and approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickneſs and acuteneſs of its inhabitants, very near to the Chineſe. It is ſurrounded by high mountains, which, on the eaſt ſide, ſeparate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos: on the weſt from Pegu: and on the north from Ava, or more properly from Jangoma; on the ſouth it is waſhed by the river Siam, and joins the peninſula of Malacca, the north-weſt part of which is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both ſexes are more modeſt than any found in the reſt of this peninſula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are ſimple, and performed by their talapoins, or prieſts, ſprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating ſome prayers. The government is deſpotic; ſervants muſt appear before their maſters in a kneeling poſture; and the mandarins are proſtrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is repreſented as a large city, but ſcarcely one-ſixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which ſtands about 18 leagues to the ſouth of Siam, and 12 miles from the ſea, is the only place towards the coaſt that is fortified with walls, batteries, and braſs cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninſula of Malacca is a large country, and contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are ſaid to be real maſters and ſovereigns of the whole peninſula, being in poſſeſſion of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the pureſt of any ſpoken in all the Indies. We are told by the lateſt travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums.

Some miſſionaries pretend that it is the Golden Cherſoneſus, or peninſula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants uſed to meaſure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent ſituation of this country admits of trade with India; ſo that when it was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richeſt city in the Eaſt, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at preſent is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chineſe. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an induſtrious ingenious people, is eaſily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whoſe intereſt it is that they ſhould never recover from their preſent ſtate of ignorance and ſlavery.

The Engliſh carry on a ſmuggling kind of trade in their country ſhips, from the coaſt of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regard the orders of their ſuperiors, provided they can enrich themſelves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the beſt information, its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 520 Engliſh miles: and its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a ſpacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the country, on account of its ſultry air, and the peſtiferous gnats, ſerpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its ſoil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by ſea and land, are much the ſame with the other kingdoms of this vaſt peninſula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they ſay, an excellent remedy for all thoſe diſeaſes that are common to the inhabitants of the Eaſt Indies, is the higheſt luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peaſant; but it is very unpalatable and diſagreeable to the Europeans. The ſame barbarous magnificence, deſpotiſm of the king, and ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the reſt of the peninſula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chineſe, and ſeem therefore to be ſomewhat more civiliſed than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the weſtern China, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much leſs extenſive in its breadth from eaſt to weſt. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as ſome other ſmaller kingdoms, are ſaid to be tributary to Cochin-China. The manners and religion of the people ſeem to be originally Chineſe; and they are much given to trade. Their king is ſaid to be immenſely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the Eaſt Indies; but this mighty prince, as well as the kings of Tonquin, are ſubject to the Chineſe emperor.

The government of Tonquin is particular. The Tonquineſe had revolted from the Chineſe, which was attended by a civil war. A compromiſe at laſt took place between the chief of the revolt and the repreſentative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of Chouah; while the Bua, or real king, ſhould retain the royal titles, and be permitted ſome inconſiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can ſtir without permiſſion of the chouah.

The chouah reſides generally in the capital, Cachao, which is ſituated near the centre of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vaſt ſtructure,

and has a fine arſenal. The Engliſh have a very flouriſhing factory on the north ſide of the city.

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## INDIA within the GANGES, or HINDOOSTAN, the Empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION and EXTENT, including the Peninſula Weſt of the Ganges.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 2000<br>Breadth 1500 | between | 7 and 40 North latitude.<br>66 and 92 Eaſt longitude. | 870,910 |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Uſbec Tartary and Thibet on the North; by Thibet and the Bay of Bengal on the Eaſt; by the Indian Ocean on the South; by the ſame, and Perſia, on the Weſt. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Hindooſtan properly ſo called.

| Grand Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The north-eaſt diviſion of India, containing the provinces of Bengal on the mouth of the Ganges, and thoſe of the mountains of Naugracut | Bengal proper | Calcutta |
| | | Fort William (Engliſh) |
| | | Hoogley (Engliſh) |
| | | Dacca (Engliſh) |
| | | Malda, Engliſh, & Dutch |
| | | Chatigan |
| | | Caſſumbazar |
| | Naugracut | Naugracut |
| | Jeſuar | Rajapour |
| | Patna | Patna |
| | Necbal | Necbal |
| | Gore | Gore |
| | Rotas | Rotas |
| The north-weſt diviſion, on the frontiers of Perſia, and on the river of Indus | Soret | Jaganal |
| | Jeſſelmere | Jeſſelmere |
| | Tata, or Sinda | Tata |
| | Bucknor | Bucknor |
| | Moultan | Moultan |
| | Haican | Haican |
| | Cabul | Cabul |
| The middle diviſion | Candiſh | Medipour |
| | Berar | Berar |
| | Chitor | Chitor |
| | Ratipor | Ratipor |
| | Navar | Navar |
| | Gualeor | Gualeor |
| | Agra | Agra |
| | Delhi | DELHI, E. long. 77. 40. N. lat. 29. |
| | Lahor, or Pencah | Lahor |
| | Hendowns | Hendowns |
| | Caſſimere | Caſſimere |
| | Jengapour | Jengapour |
| | Aſmer, or Bando | Aſmer |

The Britiſh nation poſſeſs, in full ſovereignty, the whole ſoubah of Bengal, and the greateſt part of Bahar; in Oriſſa, or Orixa, only the diſtrict of Midnapour. The whole of the Britiſh poſſeſſions in this part of Hindooſtan contain about 15,000 ſquare Britiſh miles of land; to which if we add the diſtrict of Benares, the whole will be 162,000, that is 30,000 more than are contained in Great Britain and Ireland; and near eleven millions of inhabitants. The total net revenue, including Benares, is about 287 lacks of Sicca rupees, which may be reckoned equal to 3,050,000l*. With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable courſe of the Ganges from its entry on the plains to the ſea, which, by the winding courſe, is more than 1350 miles.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for ſix months from the ſouth, and ſix from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are exceſſively hot, but refreſhed by ſea breezes; and in ſome dry ſeaſons, the hurricanes, which tear up the ſands, and let them fall in dry ſhowers, are exceſſively diſagreeable. The Engliſh, and conſequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Hindooſtan, are commonly ſeized with ſome illneſs, ſuch as flux, or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, eſpecially if the patients are abſtemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The moſt remarkable mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus and Naugracut, which divide India from Perſia, Uſbec Tartary, and Thibet; and are inhabited by Mahrattas, Aſghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. The mountains of Balegaut, which run almoſt the whole length of India from north to ſouth, are ſo high as to ſtop the weſtern monſoon, the rains beginning ſooner on the Malabar than they do on the Coromandel coaſt.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Indus, called by the natives Sinda and Sindeh; and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and held in the higheſt eſteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Beſides thoſe rivers, many others water this country.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are the Indian Ocean; the Bay of Bengal; the Gulf of Cambaya; the Straits of Ramanakoel; Cape Comorin, and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] To what has been ſaid of their religions and ſects, in the general review of this great empire, it may be added, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahomedan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practiſing the greateſt auſterities; but many of them are impoſtors. Their number is ſaid to be 800,000. Another ſet of mendicants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and much more numerous, but moſt of them are vagabonds and impoſtors, who live by amuſing the credulous Gentoos with fooliſh fictions. The Banians, who are ſo called from their affected innocence of life, ſerve as brokers, and profeſs the Gentoo religion.

The Perſees, or Parſes of Hindooſtan, are originally the Gaurs, deſcribed in Perſia, but are a moſt induſtrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be poſſeſſed of the works of Zoroaſter, whom they call by various names. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is ſaid only as an emblem of the divinity.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as

* A conſiderable addition both to the territory and revenue of the Eaſt-India company was obtained by the ceſſions in the late treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultan, to the amount of 15,374 ſquare miles, affording a revenue of 1,316,765 Coonteary pagodas, equal to 411,450l. RENNELL.

Another conſiderable addition has ſince been made by the late conqueſt and partition of the whole of the Myſore country.

well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the ſports of the field. They affect ſhady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous muſic, both in wind and ſtring inſtruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houſes make no appearance, and thoſe of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them ſubject to fire; but the manufacturers chooſe to work in the open air; and the inſides of houſes belonging to principal perſons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleaſant, and many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF HINDOOSTAN.] The commerce and manufactures of India have already been mentioned; but the Mahomedan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been deſcribed, which is that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the weſtern parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular ſpecies of veſſels called junks, the largeſt of which, we are told, beſides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahomedan pilgrims to viſit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyſſinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they diſpoſe of their cargoes for gold and ſilver; ſo that a Mahomedan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000l.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] The province of Agra is the largeſt in all Hindooſtan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greateſt city, and its caſtle the largeſt fortification, in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the Engliſh have not.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewiſe the capital of Hindooſtan. It is deſcribed as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the uſual magnificence of the Eaſt. Its ſtables formerly contained 12,000 horſes, brought from Arabia, Perſia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the ſeaſon, as is often the caſe, theſe horſes are ſaid to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and ſugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindia, is a large city; and it is ſaid that a plague, which happened there in 1699, carried off above 80,000 of its manufactures in ſilk and cotton. It is ſtill famous for its manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repoſe when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, forty miles a day; ten being uſually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at firſt coſt, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten ſhillings a month each, out of which they maintain themſelves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Moultan is not very fruitful, it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their ſituation, are enabled to deal with the Perſians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horſes.

The province of Caſſimere being ſurrounded with mountains, is difficult of acceſs; but when entered, it appears to be the paradiſe of the Indies. It is ſaid to contain 100,000 villages, to be ſtored with cattle and game, without any beaſts of prey. The capital (Caſſimere) ſtands by a large lake; and both ſexes, the women eſpecially, are almoſt as fair as the Europeans, and are ſaid to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian hiſtory, and is ſtill one of the largeſt and fineſt provinces in the Indies, producing the beſt ſugars of any in Hindooſtan. Its capital was

once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the province of Ayud, Varad, Beker, Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Hindooſtan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who ſeem never to have been conquered, and though they ſubmit to the Moguls, live in an eaſy, independent ſtate. In ſome of thoſe provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native ſoil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the moſt intereſting to an Engliſh reader. It is eſteemed the ſtorehouſe of the Eaſt Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile: and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, ſeſamum, ſmall mulberry and other trees. Its calicoes, ſilks, ſalt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world: and proviſions here are in vaſt plenty, and incredibly cheap, eſpecially pullets, ducks, and geeſe. The country is interſected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both ſides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, caſtles, and villages.

In Bengal, the worſhip of the Gentoos is practiſed in its greateſt purity, and their ſacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithſtanding their religion, are ſaid by ſome to be laſcivious and enticing.

The principal Engliſh factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: it is ſituated on the river Hoogley, the moſt weſterly branch of the Ganges. It is about 100 miles from the ſea: and the river is navigable up to the town, for the largeſt ſhips that viſit India. The fort itſelf is ſaid to be irregular, and untenable againſt diſciplined troops; but the ſervants of the company have provided themſelves with an excellent houſe, and moſt convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itſelf has been in fact for ſome time in poſſeſſion of the company, an Engliſh civil government, by a mayor and aldermen was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company. But, in 1773, an act of parliament was paſſed to regulate the affairs of the Eaſt-India company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act, a governor-general and four counſellors were appointed, and choſen by the parliament, with whom was veſted the whole civil and military government of the preſidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government of all the territorial acquiſitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſo long as the company ſhould remain poſſeſſed of them. The governor-general and council ſo appointed are inveſted with the power of ſuperintending and controlling the government and management of the preſidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correſpond with them. The governor-general and counſellors are likewiſe empowered to eſtabliſh a court of judicature at Fort William: to conſiſt of a chief juſtice and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majeſty; they are to exerciſe all criminal, admiralty, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction: to be a court of record, and a court of over and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory at Fort William and its limits; and the factories ſubordinate thereto. But the eſtabliſhment of this ſupreme court does not appear to have promoted either the intereſts of the Eaſt-India company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and cuſtoms of the natives: acts of great oppreſſion and injuſtice have been committed; and the ſupreme court has been a ſource of great diſ-

ſatisfaction, diſorder, and confuſion. For the ſubſequent regulations of the Eaſt-India territories and company, we refer to our account in the Hiſtory of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The Indian nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the company, and inveſted Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor and ſome of the principal perſons of the place threw themſelves, with their chief effects, on board the ſhips in the river; they who remained, for ſome hours bravely defended the place: but their ammunition being expended, they ſurrendered upon terms. The ſoubah, a capricious unfeeling tyrant, inſtead of obſerving the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwel, the governor's chief ſervant, and 145 Britiſh ſubjects, into a little but ſecure priſon, called the Black-Hole, a place about eighteen feet ſquare, and ſhut up from almoſt all communication of free air. Their miſeries during the night were inexpreſſible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the reſt dying of ſuffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenſy. Among thoſe ſaved was Mr. Holwel himſelf, who has written a moſt affecting account of the cataſtrophe. The inſenſible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the Engliſh out of his dominions; but the ſeaſonable arrival of admiral Watſon, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with ſome difficulty, in poſſeſſion of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plaſſey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Surajah Dowla, in whoſe place Mhir Jaffeir, one of his generals, who had previouſly ſigned a ſecret treaty with Clive to deſert his maſter, and amply reward the Engliſh, was advanced, of courſe, to the ſoubahſhip.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna, or Moorſhedabad; and Benares, lying in the ſame province, is the Gentoo univerſity, and celebrated for its ſanctity.

Chandenagore is the principal place poſſeſſed by the French in Bengal: it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though ſtrongly fortified, furniſhed with a garriſon of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the Engliſh admirals Watſon and Pococke, and colonel Clive; and alſo was taken the laſt war, but reſtored by the peace. Hoogley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richeſt of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well-fortified factory. The ſearch for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people, from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogley, for about fifty miles farther. Decca is ſaid to be the largeſt city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an Engliſh and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Caſſumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; beſides a number of other places of leſs note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or ſoubah of Malva, which lies to the weſt of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief cities are Ratiſpor, Ougein, and Indoor. The province of Candiſh includes that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhampoor, a flouriſhing city, which carries on a vaſt trade in chintzes, calicoes, and embroidered ſtuffs. Cattac is the capital of Orixa.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire, to the north of what is properly called the peninſula within the Ganges. Thoſe that lie to the ſouthward fall into the deſcription of the peninſula itſelf.

HISTORY.] The firſt invader of this country, India, whoſe expedition is authentically recorded, was the famous Alexander of Macedon. Zingis Khan alſo directed his force thither in the year 1221, and made the emperor forſake his capital; he is ſaid to have given the name of Mogul to India. Long before Tamerlane, deſcended in the female line from that conqueror, Mahomedan princes had entered, made conqueſts, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in India. Walid, the ſixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who aſcended the throne in the 708th year of the Chriſtian æra, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conqueſts in India; ſo that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, ſon of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province ſeparated by mountains from the north-weſt parts of India, and ſituated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the ſword into Hindooſtan, in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Chriſtian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treaſures, demoliſhing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Hindooſtan is repreſented to be immenſe. The ſucceſſors of this Mahmoud are called the dynaſty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themſelves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Koſron Shah, the 13th and laſt prince of the Gaznavide race, was depoſed by Kuſſain Gauri, who founded the dynaſty of the Gaurides, which furniſhed five princes, who poſſeſſed nearly the ſame dominions as their predeceſſors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predeceſſor, Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treaſures. But an Indian, who had been rendered deſperate by the pollutions and inſults to which he ſaw his gods and temples expoſed, made a vow to aſſaſſinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finiſhed in the year 1212, in the perſon of Mahmoud, ſucceſſor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was alſo cut off by the ſwords of aſſaſſins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, deſcending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucaſus. This invincible barbarian met with no reſiſtance ſufficient to juſtify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But, after an immenſe ſlaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himſelf lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The hiſtory of the ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Hindooſtan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variouſly repreſented; but all writers agree, that they were magnificent and deſpotic princes; that they committed their provinces, as has been already obſerved, to rapacious governors, or to their own ſons, by which their empire was often miſerably torn in pieces. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngeſt among many ſons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Hindooſtan, and may be conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the firſt who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the peninſula within the Ganges, which is at preſent ſo well known to the Engliſh. He lived ſo late as the year 1707, and it is ſaid that ſome of his great officers of ſtate were alive in the year 1750.

In 1713, four of his grandſons diſputed the empire, which, after a bloody ſtruggle, fell to the eldeſt, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a ſlave to his pleaſures, and was governed by his miſtreſs ſo abſolutely, that his great omrahs conſpired againſt him, and raiſed to the throne one of his nephews, who ſtruck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whoſe name was Furrukhſir, was governed and at laſt enſlaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abuſed his power ſo groſsly, that being afraid to puniſh them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately aſſaſſinated. They diſcovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whoſe place they raiſed a grandſon of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of ſeventeen years of age, after impriſoning and ſtrangling Furrukhſir. The young emperor proved diſagreeable to the brothers, and, being ſoon poiſoned, they raiſed to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Hindooſtan, whoſe anceſtors had entered into ſtipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field againſt the two brothers, but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil poſſeſſion of the empire, but died in 1719. He was ſucceeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and entered into private meaſures with his great rajahs for deſtroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is ſaid, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himſelf againſt the brothers, and to proclaim himſelf ſoubah of Deccan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was aſſaſſinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi to deſtroy the other brother; but he no ſooner underſtood what had happened, than he proclaimed the ſultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle enſued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious. He is ſaid to have uſed his conqueſt with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the priſon from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewiſe a priſoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took poſſeſſion of his vaſt riches. Seyd did not long ſurvive his confinement; and, upon his death, the emperor abandoned himſelf to the ſame courſe of pleaſures that had been ſo fatal to his predeceſſors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed againſt the Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almoſt made themſelves maſters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his ſoubahſhip, and was conſidered as the firſt ſubject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwiſe Kouli Khan, the Perſian monarch, to invade Hindooſtan. It is thought, that he had intelligence of a ſtrong party formed againſt him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have ſucceſs, and at firſt wanted to make himſelf uſeful by oppoſing him. The ſucceſs of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immenſe treaſure which he carried from Hindooſtan in 1739. Beſides thoſe treaſures, he obliged the Mogul to ſurrender to him all the lands to the weſt of the rivers Attock and Sind, comprehending the provinces of Peyſhor, Cabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almoſt equal in value to the crown of Perſia itſelf.

This invaſion coſt the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, ſome accounts, and thoſe too ſtrongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible ſum of two hundred and thirty-

one millions ſterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of thoſe times. The moſt moderate ſay that Nadir's own ſhare amounted to conſiderably above ſeventy millions. Be that as it may, the invaſion of Nadir Shah may be conſidered as putting a period to the greatneſs of the Mogul empire in the houſe of Tamerlane. Nadir, however, when he had raiſed all the money he could in Delhi, re-inſtated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the ſovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces ſoon after enſued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-weſt of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being aſſaſſinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his treaſurer, an unprincipled man, but poſſeſſed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confuſion occaſioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himſelf at the head of an army, and march againſt Delhi with fifty thouſand horſe. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi made the means of continuing thoſe miſeries of war which it had at firſt occaſioned. Prince Achmet Shah, the Mogul's eldeſt ſon, and the viſier, with other leading men, in this extremity, took the field with eighty thouſand horſe, to oppoſe the invader. The war was carried on with various ſucceſs, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His ſon, Achmet Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary.

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation, poſſeſſing the ſouth-weſtern peninſula of India, had, before the invaſion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout or tribute from the empire, ariſing out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld in conſequence of the enfeebled ſtate of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires* and to diſtricts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every ſpecies of domeſtic miſery. Achmet Shah reigned only ſeven years, after which much diſorder and confuſion prevailed in Hindooſtan, and the people ſuffered great calamities. At preſent, the imperial dignity of Hindooſtan is veſted in Shah Allum Zadah, who is univerſally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a ſmall territory round it, is all that is left remaining of the houſe and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the Engliſh, and whoſe intereſt it is to ſupport him, as his authority is the beſt legal guarantee of their poſſeſſions.

We ſhall now conclude the hiſtory of Hindooſtan with ſome account of the Britiſh tranſactions in that part of the world, ſince 1765, when they were quietly ſettled in the poſſeſſion of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, not indeed as abſolute ſovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This ſtate of tranquillity, however, did not long continue, for, in 1767, they found themſelves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the ſovereign of Myſore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and in the year 1753 had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in their ſervice. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Myſore, he depoſed his ſovereign, and uſurped the ſupreme

* Jaghire means a grant of land from a ſovereign to a ſubject, revokeable indeed at pleaſure; but generally held for life.

authority, under the title of regent. In a ſhort time he extended his dominions on all ſides, except the Carnatic, until at laſt his dominions equalled the iſland of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not leſs than four millions ſterling annually. The diſcords which took place in various parts of Hindooſtan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandiſe himſelf in ſuch a manner, that his power ſoon became formidable to his neighbours; and in 1767, he found himſelf in danger of being attacked on one ſide by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the Britiſh. The former were bought off with a ſum of money, and the latter were in conſequence obliged to retire. Having ſoon, however, aſſembled all their forces, ſeveral obſtinate engagements took place; and the Britiſh now, for the firſt time, found a ſteady oppoſition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various ſucceſs during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a ſtrong detachment of his army, paſſing by that of the Britiſh, advanced within a little diſtance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly loſt by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a moſt dreadful defeat, almoſt his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the neceſſity of allowing his enemies to deſolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perſeverance and diligence, ſo that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made ſome attempts to get poſſeſſion of the provinces of Corah, and ſome others, but were oppoſed by the Britiſh, who, next year, defeated and drove them acroſs the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occaſion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowla, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promiſed to pay forty lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but when the money came to be paid, it was, under various pretences, refuſed; the conſequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the Britiſh, as well as ſeveral other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced, to the weſtward, within twenty-five miles of Agra; north-weſtward, to the upper part of the navigable courſe of the Ganges; and ſouth-weſtward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occaſion a brigade, conſiſting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by Britiſh officers, traverſed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the Weſtern Ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting aſſiſtance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For ſome time he carried every thing before him; and having the good fortune to defeat, or rather deſtroy, a detachment of the Britiſh army, under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would have ſoon been annihilated. By the happy exertions of Sir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progreſs of this formidable adverſary was ſtopped, and he ſoon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expenſe to himſelf, without any reaſonable proſpect of ſucceſs. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was ſincerely deſirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a concluſion; and his rival, Sir Eyre Coote, did not ſurvive him above five months: a very remarkable circumſtance, that the com-

manders in chief of two armies, oppoſed to each other, ſhould both die natural deaths within ſo ſhort a ſpace of time.

To Hyder Ally ſucceeded his ſon, Tippoo Sultan, whoſe military proweſs is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the moſt formidable to the Britiſh government, and the moſt hoſtile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore, in 1784, had, it was ſuppoſed, ſecured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the ſplendid embaſſy which, not long after that event, he diſpatched to France, afforded much reaſon to apprehend that ſome plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Myſore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian poſſeſſions; but this plan was happily defeated by the French revolution.

The increaſing power of Tippoo was not leſs formidable to the Dutch, than to the Engliſh; and the vicinity of Cochin, their moſt flouriſhing ſettlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aſpiring monarch, made them tremble for its ſafety. That ſagacious people, however, have ſeldom been without their reſources. Beſides Cochin, the Dutch were poſſeſſed of two other forts, which were ſituated between Myſore and their favourite ſettlement; and one of them, Cranganore, had been taken by Hyder Ally in 1779, or 1780. When the war broke out in 1780 between Hyder and the Engliſh, he was obliged to evacuate his garriſons on the Malabar coaſt, to employ his force in the Carnatic; and Holland and France being ſoon after united with Hyder againſt the Engliſh, the Dutch embraced the opportunity of clandeſtinely taking poſſeſſion, and re-garriſoning the fort; a meaſure which greatly offended Hyder, and of which he loudly complained. By the mediation, however, of France, a compromiſe took place, but upon what terms is uncertain.

From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and their ſituation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to Myſore (the rajah of Cochin), the poſſeſſion of them was a moſt deſirable object with Tippoo. In the month of June, 1789, he marched a formidable force towards Cranganore, with a profeſſed intention of making himſelf maſter of it, upon a claim chiefly founded upon the tranſactions we have juſt related. Unable therefore to retain the poſſeſſion of the forts themſelves, and fearing for a ſettlement of much ſuperior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negotiation with the rajah of Travancore for the purchaſe of them. That politic people eaſily ſaw, that, by placing them in his hands, they erected a moſt powerful barrier, no leſs than the whole force of Great Britain (who was bound by treaty to aſſiſt him), againſt the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their ſettlement at Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon ſuch a purchaſe while the title was diſputed, drew down upon him the heavieſt cenſures from the government at Madras; and he was repeatedly cautioned both by Sir Archibald Campbell, and Mr. Holland, his ſucceſſor in the government, not to proceed in the negotiation. Such, however, was the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this acquiſition, that he not only concluded the purchaſe with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for ſome adjacent territory. The bargain was concluded in July, 1789, though it was not till the 4th of Auguſt that the rajah informed the Madras government, through their reſident Mr. Powney, that he was on the point of making the purchaſe.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent ſpecta-

tor of theſe tranſactions. He inſiſted on the claim which he retained over theſe forts, in conſequence of their being conquered by his father, and in conſequence of the ſubſequent compromiſe. He aſſerted, that according to the feudal laws, no transfer of them could take place without his conſent, as ſovereign of Myſore; and on the 29th of December, he made, with a conſiderable force, a direct attack upon the lines of Travancore. On receiving a remonſtrance from the Britiſh government of Fort St. George, he deſiſted, and even apologiſed. From the 29th of December to the 1ſt of March, Tippoo Sultan remained perfectly quiet, ſtill aſſerting his claims to the feudal ſovereignty of the forts; but, it is confidently affirmed, offering to ſubmit the diſpute to an impartial arbitration.

On the firſt of March, 1790, the rajah's troops made an offenſive attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place; and the Britiſh government conceived themſelves bound to take an active part. No period appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, if that was the object of the Britiſh adminiſtration. With all the other powers of India we were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance exiſted between Great Britain and the two moſt powerful ſtates of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas; and both declared themſelves in perfect readineſs to exert their utmoſt force to cruſh the riſing power of Myſore.

We ſhall here preſent the reader with a brief account of the progreſs and termination of this war, by which the Britiſh power was more than ever eſtabliſhed on the continent of Aſia, from a narrative drawn up by major Dirom, from journals and authentic documents.

It ſhould be remembered, that the campaign here recorded was the third of our war with Tippoo Sultan. The *firſt* commenced in June, 1790, and concluded with that year. It was confined below the Ghauts. The *ſecond campaign* contained the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the ſeat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded with the retreat of lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end of May 1791. The *third* commences almoſt from that point, and terminates in March 1792. Obſerving, however, as the author very properly ſtates, that, in the fine climate of Myſore, campaigns are regulated rather by plans of operations, than by ſeaſons.

The narrative commences with unfavourable circumſtances; the retreat of the two armies under general Abercromby and lord Cornwallis; the loſs of cannon in both; an epidemic diſtemper among the cattle; and a dreadful ſcarcity of grain. Theſe evils, however, vaniſhed by degrees; the junction of the Mahrattas afforded a ſupply of neceſſaries, and arrangements were made for obtaining in future the moſt ample and regular proviſions of bullocks and grain, and for replacing the battering guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of Bangalore, the operations began, which were to ſecure the communication with the Carnatic, and reduce the power of the enemy in thoſe parts. The Britiſh force was immediately and ſucceſsfully employed to reduce Outfoor, Rayacotta, and the other hill forts commanding the Policode paſs. The next object was the forts to the north-eaſt of Bangalore, which interrupted the communication with the Nizam's army, and with the Carnatic, by that route. Theſe being ſoon reduced, Nundydroog, built on the ſummit of a mountain, about one thouſand ſeven hundred feet in height, a place of greater magnitude and ſtrength, was attacked, and after being beſieged from September 22, was carried by aſſault on the 18th of

October, in ſpite of obſtacles which might reaſonably have been deemed inſurmountable.

By means of diſpoſitions made for that purpoſe, ſupplies of all kinds now came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of October; and Kiſtdagheri attacked on the 7th of November; this was almoſt the only enterpriſe that was not completely ſucceſsful; the lower fort and pettah were taken; but the upper fort maintained its defence, and the attack was relinquiſhed. It ſeems that it could only have been carried by a *coup de main*, which unluckily failed. On the 2d of the ſame month, another inſtance of ill ſucceſs happened to us; the relief of Coimbetore having been prevented, that garriſon was obliged to capitulate to Kummeer-ud-deen Kahn, on terms which Tippoo did not afterwards fulfil.

Savendroog, or the Rock of Death, bore witneſs, in the month of December, to the ardour and perſeverance of the Britiſh troops. This fortreſs, ſtanding in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is thus deſcribed: It is "a vaſt mountain of rock, and is reckoned to riſe above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a baſe of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every ſide, and defended by croſs walls and barriers, wherever it was deemed acceſſible,—this huge mountain had the farther advantage of being divided above by a chaſm which ſeparates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, from two citadels capable of being maintained, independent of the lower works; and, affording a ſecure retreat, ſhould encourage the garriſon to hold out to the laſt extremity," p. 67. It is no leſs famed for its noxious atmoſphere, occaſioned by the ſurrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful ſize and ſtrength. Hence it derives its formidable name.

The ſultan is ſaid to have flattered himſelf that before this place "half the Europeans would die of ſickneſs, the other half be killed in the attack;" he was, however, miſtaken. The garriſon, fortunately for us, truſted more to the ſtrength of the place than to their own exertions, and, on the 21ſt of December, only the 11th day of the ſiege, this fortreſs, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by aſſault in leſs than an hour, in open day, without the loſs of a man, only one private ſoldier having been wounded.

Outredroog, and other forts, fell ſucceſſively after this brilliant ſucceſs. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the ſame interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long ſiege of Gurramcondah, drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded. To make amends for this failure, the Mahratta army, under Purſeram Bhow, aſſiſted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankapoor, Simoga, and other places. By the latter end of January, 1792, the whole allied forces, excepting the Bombay army, was aſſembled in the vicinity of Hooleadroog.

We come now to the operations againſt Seringapatam. On the firſt of February, 1792, the allies began their march, and by two o'clock on the 5th we encamped acroſs the valley of Milgotah, only ſix miles from the poſition of Tippoo before Seringapatam. It could not well be expected by the ſultan that he ſhould receive ſo early an attack as lord Cornwallis deſtined for him. His camp was ſtrongly ſituated and fortified by a bound hedge, and ſeveral redoubts. Nevertheleſs, after cauſing his poſition to be reconnoitred in the morning of the 6th, the commander in chief iſſued orders for the attack that very evening. The army was to march at night in three diviſions, and without cannon.

"The plan of attack," says major Dirom, "was indeed bold beyond the expectation of our army; but, like a discovery in science, which excites admiration when disclosed, it had only to be known, to meet with general applause." The outlines of this great enterprise are generally known; the particulars cannot be detailed in this place, but are related with great clearness by the historian, and so illustrated by the attendant plans, that the circumstances cannot be mistaken.

The result of this operation was, that Tippoo was driven from his camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken, and a lodgement established on the island, in a strong position, where lieut. Stuart remained posted. All possible preparations were made, from this time, for taking the capital by assault: and they were such as probably would have been crowned with full success. On the 16th of February, the Bombay army, under general Abercromby, after overcoming various obstacles, joined the main army, and remained posted to the north-west of the city.

On the 19th it was stationed on the south side of the Caveri, in a situation that seemed to give the sultan much uneasiness. However, after attacking the advanced post of this army on the night of the 21st, Tippoo made no farther effort; and on the 24th, when the preparations for the general assault were in great forwardness, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were settled. The conferences for this purpose had begun on the 15th; but the operations on both sides continued till the 24th. After the cessation of arms, which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was so equivocal and suspicious, as to make it necessary on our part to renew the preparations for the siege. Overawed, at length, by the firmness and decision of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the discontent of his own people, the reluctant sultan submitted to all the terms proposed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form, by his sons, to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes. The Nizam's son, prince Secunder Jah, and the Mahratta plenipotentiary, Hurry Punt, thought it beneath their dignity to be present on this occasion in person, and were represented by their vakeels.

The substance of the treaty was: 1st. That Tippoo was to cede one-half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d. That he was to pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees. 3d. That all prisoners were to be restored. 4th. That [illegible] of the sultan's three eldest sons were to become hostages for the due performance of the treaty.

Tippoo is said to have been prevailed upon with infinite difficulty to subscribe to the terms of peace; and now that all was settled, the uneasiness in the seraglio became extreme in parting with the boys, who were to be sent out as hostages. The sultan was again entreated to request they might be allowed to stay another day, in order to make suitable preparations for their departure; and lord Cornwallis, who had dispensed with their coming at the time the treaty was sent, had again the goodness to grant his request.

When the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned as they went out, and every where crowded with people, who, from curiosity or affection, had come to see them depart, the sultan himself was on the rampart above the gateway. They were saluted by the fort on leaving it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they passed was turned out to meet them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents, which had been sent from the fort for their accommodation, where they were met by Sir John

Kennaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head-quarters.

The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly caparisoned, and seated in a silver howder [a canopied seat], and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the persons already mentioned, also on elephants. The procession was led by several camel harcarras [messengers] and seven standard-bearers, carrying small green flags, suspended from rockets*, followed by one hundred pikemen, with spears inlaid with silver. Their guard of two hundred sepoys and a party of horse brought up the rear. In this order they approached head-quarters, where the battalion of Bengal sepoys, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a street to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his staff, and some of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent, as they dismounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldest, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngest, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were seated on each side of lord Cornwallis, Gullam Ally, the head vakeel, addressed his lordship as follows: "These children were this morning the sons of the sultan, my master; their situation is now changed, and they must look up to your lordship as their father."

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own sons, anxiously assured the vakeel and the young princes themselves, that every attention possible would be shown to them, and the greatest care taken of their persons. Their little faces brightened up; the scene became highly interesting; and not only their attendants, but all the spectators, were delighted to see that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would soon be reconciled to their change of situation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dressed in long white muslin gowns and red turbans. They had several rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was suspended an ornament consisting of a ruby and an emerald of considerable size, surrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans each had a sprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and instructed in their manners to imitate the reserve and politeness of age, it astonished all present to see the correctness and propriety of their conduct.

Thus ended a war in which the advantages gained by us may be briefly stated thus:—1. Our most formidable enemy was so reduced by it, as to render our possessions in India both profitable and secure. 2. Madras was secured from invasion by possession of the passes, and covered by a territory defended by strong forts. 3. The value of Bombay was greatly enhanced by possessions gained on the Malabar coast, protected by Poligautcherry and the frontier of the Coorga Rajah. These advantages, it may be presumed, far overbalanced the expenses of the war. By a statement of major Dirom, it appears that Tippoo lost in this war sixty-seven forts, 801 cannons, and 49,340 men.

It is utterly impossible, says major Rennell, in the present imperfect state of our knowledge of the geography of the northern part of the peninsula (notwithstanding the present improvements), to describe, with any degree of accuracy, the boundaries of the cessions now made to the Mahrattas and Nizam; or even the positions of all the principal places

* *Rocket* is a missile weapon, consisting of an iron tube of about a foot long, and an inch in diameter, fixed to a bamboo rod of ten or twelve feet long.

ſituated within them. A very good *general idea* may, however, be collected from the map, on which the countries ceded are particularly marked.

The ambition of Tippoo Sultan was for a time repreſſed by the victories which had forced him to ſign the treaty above-mentioned; and his power diminiſhed by the ceſſions he had been compelled to make: ſtill, however, he retained the ſame enmity to the Britiſh government, and the deſire of revenge, ſhould any events afford him encouragement and an opportunity again to reſume his arms. The war which took place between England and France, in conſequence of the French revolution, ſeemed to preſent ſuch an opportunity, and Tippoo willingly liſtened to the ſuggeſtions of French emiſſaries, that, by entering into an alliance with that republic, he might receive from it ſuch aid and ſupport as ſhould not only enable him to regain the territory he had loſt, but entirely to drive the Engliſh out of Aſia, and ſhare the dominions they had there acquired with the French.

In the month of February, 1798, a proclamation was iſſued by the governor-general of the Iſle of France, importing that an embaſſy had arrived at the Iſle of France with letters from Tippoo Sultan, addreſſed not only to the governor of that iſland, but to the executive directory of France, propoſing to conclude an offenſive and defenſive alliance with the French; to ſubſidiſe and to ſupply whatever troops the French might furniſh to the ſultan; and to commence againſt the Britiſh power in India a war of aggreſſion, for which the ſultan declared himſelf to be fully prepared. The proclamation concluded by offering encouragement to the ſubjects of France to enter into the ſervice of Tippoo Sultan, on terms to be fixed with his embaſſadors then on the ſpot. The circumſtances attending this proclamation, on inquiry, eſtabliſhed the fact that Tippoo had actually concluded ſuch an alliance as was mentioned in it with the French; and it alſo appeared that he had diſpatched an embaſſy to Zemaun Shah, the ſultan of the Abdalli, the object of which could be no other than to encourage that prince in the proſecution of his long-intended invaſion of Hindooſtan. The French expedition to Egypt, likewiſe, in the ſummer of the ſame year, appeared to have for its ultimate object the execution of a plan of invaſion of the Britiſh ſettlements in India, in conjunction with Tippoo.

In conſequence of theſe tranſactions, which ſo evidently menaced hoſtility, lord Mornington, the preſent governor-general of Bengal, addreſſed a letter to Tippoo Sultan, in which he expreſſed his ſurpriſe and concern at the intercourſe he maintained, and the alliance he had formed, with the French, propoſing to ſend to him major Doveton, who might more fully and particularly explain the ſole means which appeared effectual for removing all diſtruſt and ſuſpicion, and eſtabliſhing peace and good underſtanding on the moſt durable foundations. His lordſhip, at the ſame time, expecting but little ſatisfaction from the negotiation he had thus offered to open, determined to aſſemble without delay the armies on the coaſt of Coromandel and Malabar; and directed all his attention to ſtrengthen and improve the defenſive alliance concluded with the Nizam and the Paiſhwa of the Mahrattas. He gave peremptory orders to the government of Fort St. George to complete the equipment of their battering train, and to advance it with all practicable diſpatch to the moſt eligible ſtation on the frontier of the Carnatic, with a view of proceeding towards Seringapatam at the earlieſt poſſible period, if ſuch a movement into Myſore ſhould become neceſſary.

The letter of his lordſhip to Tippoo produced no other anſwer than vague profeſſions of a wiſh to maintain peace and amity. The ſultan, however, declined receiving major Doveton; alleging that no means more effectual could be deviſed than the treaties and engagements already entered into, to give ſtability to the foundations of friendſhip and harmony, or promote the ſtates and the welfare and advantage of all parties.

As it was evident that Tippoo meant only to gain time and increaſe his ſtrength, lord Mornington determined to avail himſelf of the ſuperiority of his force, and commence hoſtilities immediately. He accordingly, on the 3d of February, 1799, directed lieutenant-general Harris to enter the territory of the Myſore with the army aſſembled under his command; and on the ſame day iſſued orders to lieutenant-general Stuart to be prepared to co-operate from Malabar: and ſignified to rear-admiral Rainier, and to the ſeveral allies of the company, that he now conſidered the Britiſh government in India to be at war with Tippoo Sultan.

The army of Bombay, under the command of lieutenant-general Stuart, marched from Cananore on the 21ſt of February, arrived at the head of the Poodicherrum ghaut on the 25th of the ſame month, and took poſt at Seedapoor and Seedaſere on the 2d of March. The army of Madras, under lieutenant-general Harris, entered the territory of Myſore on the 5th of March, and commenced its operations by the reduction of ſeveral forts upon the frontier. On the 6th of March Tippoo Sultan paſſed his own frontier, and attacked a detachment of the army of Bombay, under lieutenant-general Stuart,—the total ſtrength of whoſe entire army did not amount to ſix thouſand fighting men. The attack of the ſultan's force was ſuſtained by a body not exceeding two thouſand men, and the ſultan's army was finally defeated and completely diſperſed before general Stuart could collect the whole of his divided force.

After this ſignal defeat, Tippoo retreated precipitately to his camp at Periapatam, and remained there until the 11th of March without making any farther attempt to moleſt the army. He then returned to Seringapatam, whence in a few days he moved to meet lieutenant-general Harris and the army of Madras, between which and the army of Tippoo an engagement took place on the 27th of March, in which the ſultan was completely defeated, and driven from every poſt which he attempted to maintain. General Harris then proceeded on his march without the leaſt interruption, till, on the 30th, he croſſed the Caveri, with his whole army, and, on the 5th of April, encamped two miles ſouth-weſt of Seringapatam, the ſiege of which he immediately prepared to commence.

In the afternoon of the 14th of April, the army of Bombay joined the army before Seringapatam. A large body of the cavalry of the enemy, under the command of Kummeer-ud-deen Khan, had attended them cloſely during their march from Periapatam, but without having been able to make the ſlighteſt impreſſion upon them. On the night of the 20th general Harris received a letter from Tippoo Sultan, expreſſive of a deſire to open a negotiation for peace. To this overture the general anſwered by tranſmitting a draft of preliminaries, founded on inſtructions with which he had been furniſhed by the governor-general; and which were, in ſubſtance, that Tippoo ſhould deliver all Frenchmen, or natives of the iſland of Mauritius or Bourbon, or of any other countries now ſubject to France, as alſo all Europeans, natives or ſubjects of countries at war with Great Britain, to be treated as priſoners of war; that he

ſhould renounce all connection with the French nation; that he ſhould cede one-half of the dominions of which he was in poſſeſſion before the war, to the allies; that he ſhould pay two crores of rupees (above two millions ſterling); and that he ſhould ſend as hoſtages four of his ſons, and four of his principal officers, together with half the required treaſure, within forty-eight hours, to the camp of the allies. To theſe propoſitions the ſultan replied, that they were weighty, and could not be brought to a concluſion without the intervention of embaſſadors.—General Harris, conſidering this as evidently intended to gain time, refuſed to admit any vakeels or embaſſadors, unleſs accompanied by the hoſtages and ſpecie required.

On the 30th of April the batteries began to batter in breach, and on the evening of the 3d of May had ſo much deſtroyed the walls, that the arrangement was made for aſſaulting the place on the following day, when the breach was reported practicable. The troops intended to be employed were ſtationed in the trenches early in the morning of the 4th, that no extraordinary movement might lead the enemy to expect the aſſault, which it was determined to make in the heat of the day, as the time beſt calculated to inſure ſucceſs, ſince the troops of the ſultan would then be leaſt prepared to oppoſe the attack. Agreeable to this diſpoſition, at one o'clock the troops began to move from the trenches, croſſed the rocky bed of the Caveri, and mounted to the aſſault, in deſpite of every obſtacle which the difficulty of the paſſage and the reſiſtance of the enemy could oppoſe. Their impetuous attack was completely ſucceſsful. Reſiſtance, however, continued to be made from the palace of Tippoo for ſome time after all firing had ceaſed from the works. Two of his ſons were there, who, on aſſurance of ſafety, ſurrendered to the troops ſurrounding them; and guards were placed for the protection of the family, moſt of whom were in the palace. It was ſoon after reported, that Tippoo Sultan had fallen: Syed Saheb, Meer Saduc, Syed Gofar, and many other of his chiefs, were alſo ſlain. Meaſures were immediately adopted to ſtop the confuſion, at firſt unavoidable in a city ſtrongly garriſoned, crowded with inhabitants, with their property in ruins from the fire of a numerous artillery, and taken by aſſault. The princes were removed to the camp.

As it appeared important to aſcertain the fate of the ſultan, immediate ſearch was made for his body, which, after much difficulty, was found, late in the evening, in one of the gates, under a heap of ſlain. He had been ſhot through the head, and bayonetted in three parts of his body, as he attempted to make his eſcape. The corpſe was the next day recogniſed by the family, and interred with the honours due to his rank in the mauſoleum of his father.

The treaſure found in the place was immenſe; a prodigious quantity of grain, and military ſtores of all kinds, were likewiſe taken.

Thus ended the power and life of, perhaps, the moſt inveterate and formidable enemy the Britiſh government ever had in Hindooſtan. His death has given a ſecurity to their poſſeſſions in that country, which they never could have had during his life. His territories have been divided between the Britiſh, the Nizam, and the Paiſhwa of the Mahrattas, except certain diſtricts of Myſore, which have been aſſigned to Maha Rajah, a deſcendant of the ancient rajahs of Myſore, who is to pay an annual ſubſidy to the Britiſh government of ſeven lacks of pagodas (or 70,000l. ſterling) for the defence of his country. The Britiſh are to poſſeſs the fortreſs, city, and iſland of Seringapatam.

Tippoo Sultan was, when he fell, about fifty years of age. He was about five feet nine inches high; his face was round, with large full eyes, and his countenance full of fire and animation. In his diſpoſition he was naturally cruel, paſſionate, and revengeful. It is probable that his abilities have been over-rated, and that he was neither ſo wiſe a ſtateſman, nor ſo able a general, as he has been repreſented. Though he poſſeſſed a conſiderable ſhare of prudence, and was not, in general, wanting either in promptitude or judgment, he at laſt fell a victim to ill-concerted ſchemes, dictated by his ambition and thirſt of revenge.

As to the government and conſtitution of Hindooſtan, we muſt refer to what we have already obſerved. The emperor of Hindooſtan, or Great Mogul (ſo called from being deſcended from Tamerlane, the Mongul or Mogul Tartar), on his advancement to the throne, aſſumes ſome grand title; as, "*The Conqueror of the World, the Ornament of the Throne*," &c. but he is never crowned.

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## THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES,

OR,

## PENINSULA OF HINDOOSTAN.

| Grand diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| The ſouth-eaſt coaſt of India, ſituate on the bay of Bengal, uſually called the coaſt of Coromandel. | Madura - - | Madura - - | 16,400 |
| | Tanjore - - | Tanjore | 83,550 |
| | | Tranquebar, Danes | |
| | Eaſt ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnatic. | Negapatam, Engliſh | |
| | | Biſnagar | |
| | | Porta-nova, Dutch | |
| | | Fort St. David, Engliſh | |
| | | Pondicherry, Conymere, French | |
| | | Coblon | |
| | | Sedraſpatam, Dutch | |
| | | St. Thomas, Portugueſe | |
| | | Fort St. George or Madras, E. long. 80-25 N. lat. 13-5. Engliſh | |
| | | Pellicate, Dutch | |
| | Golconda - - | Golconda - - - - - | 62,100 |
| | | Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines | |
| | | Maſulipatam, Engliſh and Dutch | |
| | | Vizigapatam, Engliſh | |
| | | Bimlipatam, Dutch | |
| | Oriſſa - - - | Cattack | |
| | | Balaſore, Engliſh | |

| Grand Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar. | Weſt ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnatic. | Tegapatam, Dutch | 83,040 |
| | | Anjengo, Engliſh | |
| | | Cochin, Dutch | |
| | | Calicut, Tellicherry } Engliſh | |
| | | Cananore, Dutch | |
| | | Mangalore, Barcelore } Dutch and Portugueſe | |
| | | Raolconda, diamd. mines | |
| | Deccan, or Viſiapour. | Cawar, Engliſh | |
| | | Goa, Portugueſe | |
| | | Rajapore, French | |
| | | Dabal, Engliſh | |
| | | Dundee, Shoule } Portugueſe | |
| | | Bombay, iſle and town, Engliſh, 18-58. N. lat. 72. 49. E. long. | |
| | | Baſſaim, Portugueſe | |
| | | Salſette, Engliſh | |
| The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar. | Cambaya, or Guzurat. | Damon, Portugueſe | |
| | | Surat, E. long. 72. 50. N. lat. 21. 10. | |
| | | Swally | |
| | | Barak, Engliſh and Dutch | |
| | | Amedabad | |
| | | Cambaya | |
| | | Diu, Portugueſe. | |

RIVERS.] The Cattack or Mahanada, the Soane and Nerbudda, the Pudder, and the famous Kiſtna.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to ſouth, render it winter on one ſide of this peninſula while it is ſummer on the other. About the end of June, a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea, on the coaſt of Malabar, which, with continual rains, laſts four months, during which time all is ſerene upon the coaſt of Coromandel (the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts being ſo denominated). Towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon and the change of the monſoons begin on the Coromandel coaſt, which, being deſtitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt. The air is naturally hot upon this peninſula, but it is refreſhed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is tolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the ſea, which laſt proves a great refreſhment to the inhabitants of the coaſt. The produce of the ſoil is the ſame with that of the other part of the Eaſt Indies. The like may be ſaid of their quadrupeds, fiſh, fowl, and noxious creatures and inſects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion than thoſe of the other peninſula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes ſome ſuſpect them to be the deſcendents of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greateſt part of them have but

a faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Hindooſtan, whoſe tribute from thence has been, ever ſince the invaſion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their ſoubahs and nabobs, who now exerciſe an independent power in the government; but beſides thoſe ſoubahs and other imperial viceroys, many eſtates in this peninſula belong to rajahs, or lords, who are deſcendents of their old princes, and look upon themſelves as being independent of the Mogul and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

From what has been ſaid above, this peninſula is rather to be divided into great governments or ſoubahſhips, than into provinces. One ſoubah often engroſſes ſeveral provinces, and fixes the ſeat of his government according to his own conveniency. We ſhall ſpeak of thoſe provinces belonging to the Malabar and Coromandel coaſt, the two great objects of Engliſh commerce in that country; and firſt of the eaſtern, or Coromandel coaſt.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the ſouthernmoſt point of the peninſula. It is about the bigneſs of the kingdom of Portugal, and is ſaid to have been governed by a ſovereign king, who had under him ſeventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. At preſent the prince is ſcarcely able to protect himſelf and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Tritchinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom ſeems to conſiſt in a pearl-fiſhery upon its coaſt. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the eaſt of Madura. The ſoil is fertile, and its prince was rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and ſome Britiſh ſubjects connected with him. Within it lies the Daniſh Eaſt-India ſettlement of Tranquebar, and the fortreſs of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch during the laſt war, and confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of peace: the capital city is Tanjore.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the Engliſh. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Bay of Bengal; on the north by the river Kiſtna, which divides it from Golconda; on the weſt by Viſiapour; and on the ſouth by the kingdoms of Meſſaur and Tanjore; being in length, from ſouth to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The capital of the Carnatic is Biſnagar, belonging to the nabob of Arcot. The country in general is eſteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coaſt, lies Fort St. David, or Cuddalore, belonging to the Engliſh, with a diſtrict round it. The fort is ſtrong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the Eaſt Indies, but which has been repeatedly taken by the Engliſh, and as often reſtored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the Engliſh Eaſt-India company's dominions in that part of the Eaſt Indies, and is diſtant eaſtward from London about 4,800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the ſituation of this fort; but no pains have been ſpared by the company in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought againſt it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion of their ſeveral inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an Engliſh corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to amend the natural badneſs of its ſituation, which ſeems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey diſtant. Theſe mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeaſurement, and incloſing

the contents by paliſadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The diſtrict belonging to Madras, extending about 40 miles round, is of little value for its product; 80,000 inhabitants of various nations are ſaid to be dependent upon Madras; but its ſafety conſiſts in the ſuperiority of the Engliſh by ſea. It carries on a conſiderable trade with China, Perſia, and Mocha.

Pellicate, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. The kingdom of Golconda, which, beſides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapneſs of its proviſions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January, has already been mentioned. Golconda is ſubject to a prince called the Nizam, or ſoubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raiſe 100,000 men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda. Eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Golconda lies Maſulipatam, where the Engliſh and Dutch have factories. The Engliſh have alſo factories at Ganjam and Vizigapatam, on this coaſt; and the Dutch at Narſipore. The province of Oriſſa, from whence the Engliſh company draw ſome part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from eaſt to weſt about 350 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Booſlah and his brother, allies to the Mahrattas. In this province ſtands the temple of Jagernaut, which they ſay is attended by 500 prieſts. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black ſtone of about 4 or 500lbs. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to repreſent the eyes, and the noſe and mouth painted with vermilion.

The country of Deccan * comprehends ſeveral large provinces, and ſome kingdoms; particularly thoſe of Baglagna, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Viſiapour. The names, dependencies, and government of thoſe provinces are extremely unſettled, they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and ſubject to almoſt annual revolutions and alterations. Their principal towns are Aurengabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlet-abad; and the latter is the ſtrongeſt place in all Hindooſtan. Near it is the famous pagoda of Elora, in a plain about two leagues ſquare. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thouſand figures that ſurround it, are cut out of the natural rock. Telenga lies on the eaſt of Golconda; and its capital, Beder, contains a garriſon of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province ſpeak a language peculiar to themſelves.

Baglagna lies to the weſt of Telenga, and forms the ſmalleſt province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portugueſe territory begins here at the port of Daman, twenty-one leagues ſouth of Surat, and extends almoſt twenty leagues to the north of Goa. Viſiapour is a large province: the weſtern part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portugueſe poſſeſſions. The rajah of Viſiapour is ſaid to have had a yearly revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 ſoldiers. The capital is of the ſame name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coaſt are, Daman, Baſſaim Trapar, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajupur, Ghi-

* This name DECCAN ſignifies the SOUTH, and, in its moſt extenſive ſignification, includes the whole peninſula ſouth of Hindooſtan Proper. However, in its ordinary ſignification, it means only the countries ſituated between Hindooſtan Proper, the Carnatic, and Oriſſa; that is, the provinces of Candeiſh, Amednagur, Viſiapour, and Oriſſa.

Rennell's Introduction to the Memoir of his Map of Hindooſtan, p. cxii.

ria, and Vingorla. The Portugueſe have loſt ſeveral valuable poſſeſſions on this coaſt, and thoſe which remain are on the decline.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the Gulf of Cambaya, and one of the fineſt in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is ſaid to contain 35 cities. Ahmed-abad is the capital of the province, where there is an Engliſh factory, and is ſaid, in wealth, to vie with the richeſt towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues diſtant ſtands Surat, where the Engliſh have a flouriſhing factory.

Among the iſlands lying upon the ſame coaſt, is that of Bombay, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt-India company. Its harbour can conveniently contain 1000 ſhips at anchor. The iſland itſelf is about ſeven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its ſituation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being deſtitute of almoſt all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to Engliſh conſtitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preſervatives againſt its unwholeſomeneſs. The beſt water there is preſerved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy ſeaſons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of ſtone. Many black merchants reſide here. This iſland was part of the portion paid with the Infanta of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the Eaſt-India company; and the iſland is ſtill divided into three Roman-catholic pariſhes, inhabited by Portugueſe, and what are called popiſh Meſtizos and Canarines; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueſe, and the other the aborigines of the country. The Engliſh have found methods to render this iſland and town, under all their diſadvantages, a ſafe, if not an agreeable reſidence. The reader ſcarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative poſts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the iſland are commanded by Engliſh officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and diſciplined, are here, and all over the Eaſt Indies, called Sepoys. The inhabitants of the iſland amount to near 60,000, of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmoleſted.

Near Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the moſt inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural ſize, cut coarſely in ſtone, preſents itſelf on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An eaſy ſlope then leads to a ſtupendous temple, hewn out of the ſolid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is ſupported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, reſembling round cuſhions, as if preſſed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been mutilated by the blind zeal of the Portugueſe. Beſides the temple are various images, and groupes on each hand, cut in the ſtone—one of the latter bearing a rude reſemblance of the judgment of Solomon; alſo a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of reſemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The iſland and city of Goa, the capital of the Portugueſe ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies, lies aboutthirty miles ſouth of Vingorla. The iſland is about twenty-ſeven miles in compaſs. It is one of the fineſt and beſt fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a moſt ſuperb ſettlement, and was ſurpaſſed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is ſaid that the revenues of the Jeſuits upon this iſland equalled thoſe of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the reſt of the Portugueſe poſſeſſions of this coaſt, are under a viceroy, who

ſtill keeps up the remains of the ancient ſplendor of the government. The rich peninſula of Salſette is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies ſouth of the Portugueſe territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul. The Engliſh factory of Corwar is one of the moſt pleaſant and healthy of any upon the Malabar coaſt. Canara lies about forty miles to the ſouth of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its ſoil is famous for producing rice, that ſupplies many parts of Europe, and ſome of the Indies. The Canarines are ſaid generally to be governed by a lady, whoſe ſon has the title of Rajah; and her ſubjects are accounted the braveſt and moſt civiliſed of any in that peninſula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole ſouth-weſt coaſt of the peninſula, yet it is confined at preſent to the country ſo called, lying on the weſt of Cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the country itſelf is rich and fertile, but infeſted with green adders, whoſe poiſon is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itſelf. The moſt remarkable places in Malabar are Cranganore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tellicherry, where the Engliſh have a ſmall ſettlement, keeping a conſtant garriſon of thirty or forty ſoldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portugueſe have ſmall factories, beſides various other diſtinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the ſouthernmoſt part of this peninſula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the ſame garden the two ſeaſons of the year; the trees being loaded with bloſſoms and fruit on the one ſide, while on the other they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This ſurpriſing phænomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains ſo often mentioned, which traverſe the whole peninſula from ſouth to north. On the oppoſite ſides of the Cape, the winds are continually at variance; blowing from the weſt on the weſt ſide, and from the eaſt on the eaſtern ſide.

In the diſtrict of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found ſome thouſands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, and to have records engraven on copper-plates in Hebrew characters. They are ſaid to be ſo poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like diſcoveries of the Jews and their records have, it is ſaid, been made in China, and other places of Aſia, which have occaſioned various ſpeculations among the learned.

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Before we cloſe our account of Hindooſtan, it may be proper to deſcribe its preſent diviſion according to the different powers among whom it is ſhared; and this is the more neceſſary, as it may ſerve to give the reader a clearer idea of theſe extenſive regions, and at the ſame time ſhow him how very conſiderable a portion belongs to the Britiſh and their allies.

The celebrated Perſian uſurper, Thamas Kouli Khan, having in the year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahommed Shah, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treaſure to the amount of more than 70 millions ſterling, reſtored the unhappy prince his dominions, but annexed to Perſia all the countries weſtward of the Indus.

This dreadful incurſion ſo weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and, engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the Eaſt-India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted, as traders, to form eſtabliſhments on the coaſts. Theſe, from the great ſuperiority

of European diſcipline, from allies, became in a ſhort time principals in an obſtinate conteſt, that at length terminated in the expulſion of the French from Hindooſtan; and thus a company of Britiſh merchants have acquired, partly by ceſſions from the country powers, and partly by conqueſt, territories equal in extent, and ſuperior in wealth and population, to moſt of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally poſſeſſed ſeveral provinces of Hindooſtan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly ſubjected, but, retiring to the northern part of the Ghauts, made frequent incurſions from theſe inacceſſible mountains: taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at preſent poſſeſſed of a tract of country 1000 Britiſh miles long, by 700 wide; beſides the territory they acquired by the partition treaty, ſigned by Tippoo Sultan in March 1792.

Hyder Ally*, a ſoldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having poſſeſſed himſelf of that part of the ancient Carnatic called the kingdom of Myſore, within a few years acquired, by continual conqueſts, a conſiderable portion of the ſouthern part of the peninſula. This able and active prince, the moſt formidable enemy that the Engliſh ever experienced in Hindooſtan, dying in 1783, left to his ſon Tippoo Saib the peaceful poſſeſſion of his dominions, ſuperior in extent to the kingdom of England.

Tippoo engaged in two wars with the Engliſh, in the former of which he loſt a conſiderable part of his territories, and in the latter his life, and the remainder of his dominions, which were divided between the Britiſh, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas, as alſo the territory appropriated by the company, in the final diviſion of the Myſore country, after the taking of Seringapatam and the death of Tippoo Sultan.

Theſe extraordinay revolutions, with others of leſs importance, render the following account of the preſent diviſion of property in this great empire abſolutely neceſſary, in order to underſtand its modern hiſtory.

## PRESENT DIVISION OF HINDOOSTAN.

Such is the inſtability of human greatneſs, that the preſent Mogul, Shah Allum, the deſcendant of the great Tamerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Hindooſtan: he is permitted to reſide at Delhi, which, with a ſmall adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vaſt empire, which his anceſtors governed for more than 350 years.

The principal diviſions of this country, as they ſtood at the peace with Tippoo in 1792, were as follows, viz. The Britiſh poſſeſſions; States in alliance with Britain; Tippoo Saib's territories; Mahratta ſtates, and their tributaries; the territories of the Soubah of the Deccan; and the dominions of Tippoo Sultan.

## BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The Britiſh poſſeſſions contain about 197,496 ſquare Britiſh miles, (which is 90,327 more than is contained by Great Britain and Ireland) and about ten millions of inhabitants. They conſiſt of three diſtinct governments, viz.

* The character of the late Hyder Ally appearing to me (ſays Major Rennell) to be but little underſtood in this part of the world, I have ventured to attempt an outline of it. His military ſucceſs, founded on the improvement of diſcipline; attention to merit of every kind; conciliation of the different tribes that ſerved under his ban-

Government of Calcutta or Bengal, { Bengal Soubah, Bahar Soubah, Benares Soubah } on the Ganges.

Northern Circars, on the coaſt of Oriſſa.

Government of Madras, { The Jaghire Territory of Cuddalore, ——— of Devicotta, ——— of Negipatam } On the coaſt of Coromandel.

Government of Bombay, - - - - on the Gulf of Cambaya.

To theſe are to be added the diſtricts ceded by Tippoo Sultan by the treaty ſigned at Seringapatam on the 18th of March, 1792, viz.

| | Koonteary pagodas. |
|---|---|
| Calicut and Palichaudcherry, yielding a revenue of - - | 936,765 |
| Dindigul, Pyalny, and Verapachry - - - - - - - - | 90,000 |
| Salem, Kooſh, Namcool, and Sunkagherry - - - - - - | 88,000 |
| Ahtoor, Purmutty, Shadmungul, and Vayloor - - - - | 68,000 |
| Barra-Mahar, Raycotta, Darampoory, &c. - - - - - | 134,000 |
| | 1,316,765 |
| The province of Canara, Mangalore,—diſtricts of Coimbetore, Deramporam, and Wynaad, together with the fortreſs, city, and iſland of Seringapatam, yielding a revenue of - - | 777,170 |
| Deduct proviſions for the maintenance of the families of Hyder Ally Khan and of Tippoo Sultan - - - - - - - - - | 240,000 |
| | 537,170 |

At the rate of 3 rupees to each pagoda, and the rupees reckoned at 2s. 1d. each, the annual value of the late Britiſh acquiſitions will be £.579,349. For the revenue of the other Britiſh poſſeſſions, ſee before, p. 733.

GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government is rich, flouriſhing, and populous. It is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrampooter, with their numerous navigable channels, and the ſeveral navigable rivers they receive: it is fertiliſed by their periodical inundations; and by its natural ſituation is well ſecured againſt foreign enemies. But for a more particular deſcription of this province, we refer our readers to the account we have already given of it.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defect of this government is not only the want of connection between its parts, which are ſcattered along an extenſive coaſt, and ſeparated from each other by ſtates frequently hoſtile, but that it is totally devoid of good harbours. Hopes, however, have been entertained of remedying the latter, by removing

ners; contempt of ſtate and ceremony, except what naturally aroſe from the dignity of his character; and his conſequent œconomy in perſonal expenſes (the different habits of which form the chief diſtinction of what is called character among ordinary princes), together with his minute attention to matters of finance, and the regular payment of his army; all theſe together raiſed Hyder as far above the princes of Hindooſtan, as the great qualities of the late Pruſſian monarch raiſed him above the generality of European princes: and hence I have ever conſidered Hyder as the FREDERICK of the Eaſt. Cruelty was the vice of Hyder; but we are to conſider that Hyder's ideas of mercy were regulated by an Aſiatic ſtandard; and it is not improbable that he might rate his own character for moderation and clemency, as far above thoſe of Tamerlane, Nadir Shah, and Abdallah, as he rated his diſcipline above theirs.

the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the ſea at Devicotta. The capital and ſeat of government is MADRAS in the Jaghire, called alſo Fort St. George. It is ill ſituated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.—Fort St. DAVID, in the territory of Cuddalore, is rich, flouriſhing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—MASULIPATAM, in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Kiſtna, was formerly the moſt flouriſhing and commercial city on this coaſt, and though much declined, is ſtill conſiderable.

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapily, are defended inland by a ſtrong barrier of mountains and extenſive foreſts, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a conſiderable ſpace.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and ſeat of government is BOMBAY, in a ſmall iſland, and an unhealthy ſituation, but it is well fortified, and has a fine harbour.—SURAT on the Tapee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the moſt rich and commercial cities in Hindooſtan.—TELLICHERRY, on the Malabar coaſt, is dependent on Bombay.

## ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

| | |
|---|---|
| Dominions of the nabob of Oude, | Fyzabad.<br>Lucknow. |
| Dominions of the nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eaſtern part only of the ancient Carnatic, | Arcot, on the Paliar, is the capital, though the nabob uſually reſides at Madras.<br>Gingee, the ſtrongeſt Indian fortreſs in the Carnatic.<br>Tritchinopoly, near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almoſt ruined by the numerous ſieges it has ſuſtained.<br>Seringham Pagoda, in an iſland of the Caveri, is famous throughout Hindooſtan for its ſanctity, and has no leſs than 40,000 prieſts, who conſtantly reſide here in voluptuous indolence.<br>Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti, the Loretto of Hindooſtan. The offerings of the numerous pilgrims who reſort hither, bring in an immenſe revenue.<br>Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of ſmall ſtates of the ſame name, which, with Marawar, are dependent on the nabob of Arcot. |
| Territory of Futty Sing Guicker in the ſoubah of Guzeret. | Amedabad.<br>Cambay. |
| Territory of the rajah of Ghod. | Gwalior, a celebrated fortreſs. |

## MAHRATTA STATES, in Alliance with the BRITISH, and their TRIBUTARIES.

This extenſive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes, who have one common head, called the Paiſhwa or Nana; to whom, however, their obedience is merely nominal, as they often go to war againſt each other, and are ſeldom confederated, except for mutual defence.

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the territories of the Paiſhwa, are naturally ſtrong, being interſected by the various branches of the Ghauts.

Satara, the nominal capital of the Mahratta ſtates; the Paiſhwa, at preſent, reſides at Poonah.

Aurungabad, Amednagur, and Viſiapour, are in his territories.

The Concan, or tract between the Ghauts and the ſea, is ſometimes called the Pirate coaſt, as it was ſubject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his ſucceſſors, whoſe capital was the ſtrong fortreſs of Gheria, taken by the Engliſh and Mahrattas in 1755: by the acquiſition of this coaſt the Mahrattas have become a maritime power.

By the treaty of peace, Tippoo Sultan ceded to the Mahrattas:

| | Koonteary pagodas. |
|---|---|
| In the Dooab, being the circar of Bancapoor, with part of Moodgul, &c. affording a revenue of - - - - - | 1,306,663 |
| In Gooty, the diſtrict of Sundoor, - - - - - - - - | 10,000 |
| | 1,316,000 |

To theſe are to be added the territory aſſigned to the Paiſhwa of the Mahrattas by the final diviſion of the dominions of Tippoo Sultan, after the defeat and death of that prince.

| | |
|---|---|
| Harpoonelly, Soonda (above the Ghauts) Annagoondy, in Chittledroog, and in Bednore, - - - - - - | 263,057 |

## TERRITORY of the NIZAM, an Ally to the BRITISH.

The poſſeſſions of the Nizam or Soubah of the Deccan (a younger ſon of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck) compriſe the province of Golconda, that is the ancient province of Tellingana, or Tilling, ſituated between the lower parts of the Kiſtna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the weſtern part of Berar, ſubject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue, to the Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Paiſhwa, or Poonah Mahratta on the weſt and north-weſt; the Berar Mahratta on the north; the northern circars on the eaſt; and the Carnatic, and Myſore on the ſouth. I am not perfectly clear, ſays Major Rennell, in my idea of his weſtern boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was ſubject to continual fluctuation; but I underſtand generally, that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Aurungabad, weſtwards, and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah. His capital is Hydrabad, or Bagnagur, ſituated on the Mouſſi river, near the famous fortreſs of Golconda.

The diſtricts of Adoni and Rachore, which were in the hands of Bazalet Jung (brother to the Nizam) during his life-time, are now in the hand of the Nizam. The Sourapour, or Sallapoor rajah, on the weſt of the Beemah river, together with ſome other rajahs, are his tributaries. The Guntoor circar alſo belongs to him. Probably, ſays the

major, these dominions, including his tributaries and feudatories, are no less than 430 miles in length, from NW. to SE. by 300 wide.

To the above, we have now to add those which Tippoo Sultan ceded to him in the treaty of peace, signed March 18, 1792, viz.

| | Koonteary pagodas. |
|---|---|
| Keryah (or Cuddapah), Cummum, Ganjecotta, and Canoul, affording a revenue of | 9,71,390 |
| In Gooty | 51,782 |
| In Adoni (Mooka) | 12,162 |
| In the Dooab, being parts of Rachore, and Moodgul | 2,81,332 |
| | 13,16,666 |

To these are to be added the districts of Mysore assigned to the Nizam, after the defeat and death of Tippoo Sultan:

| | |
|---|---|
| In Gooty, Gurrumcondah, and Chittledroog, which, deducting 70,000 pagodas for a personal jaghire to Kummeer-ud-deen Khan and relations, afford a revenue of | 537,332 |

## BERAR MAHRATTAS.

This country is very little known to Europeans.

- Nagpour is the capital.
- Balasore has considerable trade.
- Cuttack, on the Mahanada, an important post which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the British, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

## NORTHERN POONAH MAHRATTAS.

They are governed at present by Sindia, Holkar, and some other less considerable princes.

- Ougein, the residence of Sindia.
- Indoor, the residence of Holkar.
- Calpy, the residence of Gungdar Punt.
- Sagur, the residence of Ballagee.

## TERRITORY OF THE RAJAH OF MYSORE.

| | Koonteary pagodas. |
|---|---|
| On the defeat and death of Tippoo Sultan, Maha Rajah, a descendant of the ancient Rajahs of Mysore, was made sovereign of a part of the territory of Mysore, consisting of certain talooks or districts of Seringapatam, Bednore, and Chittledroog, affording a revenue of | 1,374,076 |

Chitteldroog, Harponelly, Roydroog, &c. are the capitals of territories of the same name.

Country of the Abdalli.—The Abdalli are properly a sect or tribe of Afghans, but the name seems to be applied to the Afghans in general. They inhabit a country stretching from the mountains of Tartary to the Arabian Sea, and from the Indus to the confines of Persia. They are a robust hardy race of men; and, being generally addicted to a state of predatory warfare, their manners largely partake of a barbarous insolence, and they avow a fixed contempt for the occupations of civil life. The principal cities of Afghanistan are Candahar and Cabul, the former of which was the capital; but the late and present sultans have kept their court at Cabul. About the year 1720 an army of Afghans invaded Persia, took Ispahan; and made the Shah Hussein prisoner. They kept possession of Ispahan and the southern provinces for ten years, when

they were defeated in ſeveral battles, and driven out of the country, by Nadir Kuli, commonly known in Europe by the name of Kouli Khan. After Nadir had depoſed his ſovereign Shah Thamas, he beſieged and took Candahar; but afterward received a conſiderable body of the Afghans into his ſervice, who became his favourite foreign troops. On his aſſaſſination in 1747, Abdalli Ahmed Khan, the general of the Afghan troops, though furiouſly attacked by the whole Perſian army, effected a ſafe retreat into his own country, where he cauſed himſelf to be acknowledged ſovereign of the Afghan territories by the title of Ahmed Shah. He was ſucceeded in 1773 by his ſon Timur Shah, and he by Zemaun Shah, the preſent ſultan.

Country of the Seiks.—The Seiks are a powerful natio$^{n}$ conſiſting of ſeveral ſmall independent ſtates, connected by a kind of federal union. They poſſeſs the whole of Lahore, the principal part of Moultan, and the weſt part of Delhi. This tract extends 400 miles from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and is from 150 to 200 broad; though the part between Altock and Behker cannot be leſs than 320. The founder of their ſect was named Nanock, and lived in the beginning of the ſixteenth century. They are the deſcendants of his diſciples; the word *ſeiks*, in the Sanſcrit language, ſignifying diſciples. Their army conſiſts almoſt entirely of horſe, of which it is ſuppoſed they can bring 200,000 into the field. The Seiks are now become one of the moſt powerful ſtates of Hindooſtan. Their capital is Lahore.

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zebeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, ſurrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.

Travancore, near Cape Comorin.

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# PERSIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1300 | between | 44 and 70 Eaſt longitude. | 800,000 |
| Breadth | 1100 | | 25 and 44 North latitude. | |

Boundaries.] MODERN Perſia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan, which divide it from Circaſſian Tartary, on the North-Weſt; by the Caſpian Sea, which divides it from Ruſſia, on the North; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbec Tartary, on the North-Eaſt; by India, on the Eaſt; and by the Indian Ocean, and the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the Weſt.

The kingdom is divided into the following provinces; on the frontiers of India are Choraſan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Eſterabad; Sableuſtan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahar; and Seigieſtan, the ancient Drangiana. The ſouthern diviſion contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedroſia, and Parſiſtan, the ancient Perſia. The South Weſt diviſion, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chuſiſtan, the ancient Suſiana, and Irac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The North-Weſt diviſion, lying between the

Caſpian Sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Aſia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea and Daghiſtan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan and Mazanderan.

NAME.] Perſia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perſeus, the ſon of Jupiter and Danaë. Leſs fabulous authors ſuppoſed it derived from Paras, which ſignifies a horſeman,—the Perſians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

AIR.] Thoſe parts which border upon Caucaſus and Daghiſtan, and the mountains near the Caſpian Sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of theſe mountains which are commonly covered with ſnow. The air in the midland provinces of Perſia is ſerene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the ſouthern provinces it is hot, and ſometimes communicates noxious blaſts to the midland parts, which are ſo often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The ſoil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caſpian Sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the country abounds in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life. It produces wine and oil in plenty, ſenna, rhubarb, and the fineſt drugs. The fruits are delicious, eſpecially the dates, oranges, piſtachio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden ſtuff. Great quantities of excellent ſilk are likewiſe produced in this country, and the Gulf of Baſſorah formerly furniſhed great part of Europe and Aſia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Iſpahan eſpecially, produce almoſt all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from ſome of them, particularly roſes, they extract waters of a ſalubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In ſhort, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Perſia, are of a moſt exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as ſome nations in Europe, by tranſplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Perſian aſſa-fœtida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and ſome black; but the former is ſo much valued, that the natives make very rich ſauces of it, and ſometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the neceſſaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful ſpot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is ſituated, either for the ſalubrity of the air, or for the profuſion of every thing neceſſary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harveſt is completed. Moſt of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are ſuperior in ſize and flavour to what can be raiſed in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are ſeveral ſorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly ſo than the reſt; one is the large white grape, which is extremely luſcious and agreeable to the taſte; the ſmall white grape as ſweet as ſugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well deſerving of praiſe. It is preſſed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a great quantity is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Perſian Gulf, for ſupply in the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Perſians call it the fruit of Paradiſe.

The breed of horſes in the province of Fars is at preſent very indif-

ferent, owing to the ruinous ſtate of the country; but in the province of Duſhtiſtaan, lying to the ſouth-weſt, it is remarkably good. The ſheep are of a ſuperior flavour, owing to the excellence of the paſturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are alſo celebrated for the fineneſs of their fleece; "they have tails of an extraordinary ſize, ſome of which I have ſeen weigh," ſays Mr. Francklin, "upwards of thirty pounds; but thoſe which are ſold in the markets do not weigh above ſix or ſeven. Their oxen are large and ſtrong, but their fleſh is ſeldom eaten by the natives, who confine themſelves chiefly to that of ſheep and fowls."

Proviſions of all kinds are very cheap; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample ſupply of ſnow throughout the year, the meaneſt artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expenſe worthy conſideration. This ſnow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is ſold in the markets. The price of proviſions is regulated in Shirauz, with the greateſt exactneſs, by the daroga, or judge of the police, who ſets a fixed price upon every article, and no ſhop-keeper dares to demand more, under the ſevere penalty of loſing his noſe and ears.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are Caucaſus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghiſtan; and the vaſt chain of mountains called Taurus, and their diviſions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been obſerved, that no country, of ſo great an extent, has ſo few navigable rivers as Perſia. The moſt conſiderable are the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which riſe in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their ſtreams, fall into the Caſpian Sea. Some ſmall rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their ſtreams are ſo inconſiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can ſcarcely be called a Perſian river, though it divides Perſia from Uſbec Tartary. Perſia has the river Indus on the eaſt, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the weſt.

WATER.] The want of rivers, in Perſia, occaſions a ſcarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well ſupplied by means of reſervoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Perſia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and, above all, turquoiſe-ſtones, which are found in Choraſan. Sulphur, ſalt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have alſo been diſcovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It is impoſſible to ſpeak with any certainty concerning the population of a country ſo little known as that of Perſia. If we are to judge by the vaſt armies, in modern as well as in ancient times, raiſed there, the numbers it contains muſt be very great. The Perſians of both ſexes are generally handſome; the men being fond of marrying Georgian and Circaſſian women. Their complexions towards the ſouth are ſomewhat ſwarthy. The men ſhave their heads, but the young men ſuffer a lock of hair to grow on each ſide, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; and religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them coſt twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, ſo that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of reſpect even to the king. Their dreſs is very ſimple. Next to their ſkin they wear callico

ſhirts, over them a veſt, which reaches below the knee, girt with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe garment ſomewhat ſhorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expenſive, conſiſting of the richeſt furs, ſilks, muſlins, cottons, and the like valuable ſtuffs, richly embroidered with gold and ſilver. They wear a kind of looſe boots on their legs, and ſlippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expenſive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their ſaſh, and linen trowſers. The collars of their ſhirts and clothes are open; ſo that their dreſs upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpoſe both of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dreſs of the women, as well as that of the men, is very coſtly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and waſhes.

The Perſians accuſtom themſelves to frequent ablutions, which are the more neceſſary, as they ſeldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, ſweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repaſts cakes of rice, and others of wheat-flour; and as they eſteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dreſſed, theſe cakes are made thin, that they may be eaſily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton or fowls, is ſo prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is ſet in order before them, they eat faſt, and without any ceremony. But it is obſerved by a late traveller, that when the oldeſt man in the company ſpeaks, though he be poor, and ſit at the lower end of the room, they all give a ſtrict attention to his words. They are temperate, but uſe opium, though not in ſuch abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They uſe great ceremony towards their ſuperiors, and politely accommodate Europeans who viſit them, with ſtools, that they may not be forced to ſit croſs-legged. They are ſo immoderately fond of tobacco, which they ſmoke through a tube fixed in water, ſo as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Perſians are naturally fond of poetry, moral ſentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and the national revolutions, have mingled the native Perſians with barbarous nations, and are ſaid to have taught them diſſimulation; but they are ſtill pleaſing and plauſible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hoſpitality.

The Perſians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their ſeals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuſcripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible ſeems to be oſtentation in their equipage and dreſſes; nor are they leſs jealous of their women than the Turks and other eaſtern nations. They are fond of muſic, and take a pleaſure in converſing in large companies; but their chief diverſions are thoſe of the field, hunting, hawking, horſemanſhip, and the exerciſe of arms, in all which they are very dextrous. They excel, as their anceſtors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beaſts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz (Mr. Francklin obſerves) diſtinguiſhed by the name of Zoor Khana, the houſe of ſtrength, or exerciſe, to which the Perſians reſort for the ſake of exerciſing themſelves.

Theſe houſes conſiſt of one room, with the floor ſunk about two feet below the ſurface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of ſeveral ſmall perforated apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large ſquare terrace of earth, well beaten down, ſmooth and even; and on each ſide are ſmall alcoves, raiſed about two feet above the terrace, where the muſicians and ſpectators are ſeated. When all the competitors are aſſembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately ſtrip themſelves to the waiſt; on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs, of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the ſhape of a pear; theſe they reſt upon their ſhoulders, and the muſic ſtriking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, ſtamping with their feet at the ſame time, and ſtraining every nerve, till they produce a very profuſe perſpiration. After continuing this exerciſe about half an hour, upon a ſignal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briſkly in uniſon with the muſic, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this for ſome time, they commence wreſtling, in which the maſter of the houſe is always the challenger; and being accuſtomed to the exerciſe, generally proves conqueror. The ſpectators pay each a ſhahee in money, equal to three-pence Engliſh, for which they are refreſhed with a calean to ſmoke, and coffee. This mode of exerciſe muſt contribute to health, as well as add ſtrength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It ſeems to bear ſome reſemblance to the gymnaſtic exerciſes of the ancients.

The Perſians, with reſpect to outward behaviour, are certainly the moſt poliſhed people of the eaſt. While a rude and inſolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkiſh nation toward foreigners and Chriſtians, the behaviour of the Perſians would, on the contrary, do honour to the moſt civiliſed nations. They are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all ſtrangers, without being guided by thoſe religious prejudices ſo very prevalent in every other Mahomedan nation; they are fond of inquiring after the manners and cuſtoms of Europe; and, in return, very readily afford any information in reſpect to their own country. The practice of hoſpitality is with them ſo grand a point, that a man thinks himſelf highly honoured if you will enter his houſe and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a houſe, without ſmoaking a calean, or taking any other refreſhment, is deemed, in Perſia, a high affront; they ſay that every meal a ſtranger partakes with them brings a bleſſing upon the houſe.

The Perſians, in their converſation, uſe extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on the moſt trifling occaſions. This mode of addreſs (which in fact means nothing) is obſerved not only by thoſe of a higher rank, but even amongſt the meaneſt artificers, the loweſt of whom will make no ſcruple, on your arrival, to offer you the city of Shirauz and all its appurtenances, as a peiſhkuſh, or preſent. This behaviour appears at firſt very remarkable to Europeans, but after a ſhort time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of converſation is a thing totally unknown in Perſia, as, that *walls have ears*, is proverbially in the mouth of every one.—The fear of chains which bind their bodies has alſo enſlaved their minds; and their converſation to men of ſuperior rank to themſelves is marked with ſigns of the moſt abject and ſlaviſh ſubmiſſion; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their converſation the Perſians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verſes and paſſages from the works of their moſt favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practice univerſally prevalent from the higheſt to the loweſt; becauſe thoſe who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits ariſing from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive of whatever they have heard, are always ready to bear their part in converſation. They alſo delight much in jokes and quaint expreſſions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they ſometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their converſations, which is the ſtrict attention they always pay to the perſon ſpeaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a perſonable, and in many reſpects a handſome people; their complexions, except thoſe who are expoſed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The bright and ſparkling eyes of the women, which is a very ſtriking beauty, is in a great meaſure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called ſurma) which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural luſtre.

Marriages.] When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out amongſt their kindred and acquaintance for a ſuitable match; they then go to the houſe where the female they intend to demand lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders ſweatmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct ſign of compliance. After this the uſual preſents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which, if the perſon be in middling circumſtances, generally conſiſt of two complete ſuits of apparel, of the beſt ſort, a ring, a looking-glaſs, and a ſmall ſum in ready money, of about ten or twelve tomans, which is to provide for the wife in caſe of a divorce. There is alſo provided a quantity of houſehold ſtuff of all ſorts, ſuch as carpets, mats, bedding, utenſils for dreſſing victuals, &c. The contract is witneſſed by the cadi, or magiſtrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot in a veil of red ſilk, or painted muſlin; a horſe is then preſented for her to mount, which is ſent expreſsly by the bridegroom; and when ſhe is mounted, a large looking-glaſs is held before her by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the houſe of her huſband, as an admonition to her, that it is the laſt time ſhe will look into the glaſs as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married ſtate. The proceſſion then ſets forward in the following order;—firſt, the muſic and dancing girls, after which the preſents in trays borne upon men's ſhoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all ſhouting, and making a great noiſe; who are followed by the bride herſelf, ſurrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horſe by the bridle, and ſeveral others on horſeback cloſe the proceſſion. Rejoicings upon this occaſion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time in Perſia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travellers or merchants, who intend to ſtay ſome time in any city, commonly apply to the cadi, or judge, for a wife during the time he propoſes to ſtay. The cadi, for a ſtated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honeſt, and free from diſeaſes; and he becomes ſurety for them. A gentleman, who lately attended the Ruſſian embaſſy to Perſia, declares, that amongſt thouſands, there has not been one inſtance of their diſhoneſty during the time agreed upon.

FUNERALS.] The funerals of the Perſians are conducted in a manner ſimilar to thoſe in other Mahomedan countries. On the death of a Muſſulman, the relations and friends of the deceaſed being aſſembled, make loud lamentations over the corpſe; after which it is waſhed and laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city-walls, attended by a Mullah, or prieſt, who chaunts paſſages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Muſſulman ſhould chance to meet the corpſe during the proceſſion, he is obliged, by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his aſſiſtance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the ſame time, *Lah Illah, Ill Lillah!* There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceaſed return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and ſpices, which they eat in memory of the deceaſed; ſending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they may alſo pay him a like honour. This cuſtom ſeems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of ſacrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed ſouls.

RELIGION.] The Perſians are Mahomedans of the ſect of Ali; for which reaſon the Turks, who follow the ſucceſſion of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if poſſible, in ſome things more fantaſtical and ſenſual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with ſome Brahmin ſuperſtitions. A compariſon may be made between the Brahmins and the Perſian *Guebres* or *Gaurs*, who pretend to be the diſciples and ſucceſſors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaſter. That both of them held originally pure and ſimple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be eaſily proved; but the Indian Brahmins and Perſes accuſe the Gaurs, who ſtill worſhip the fire, of having ſenſualiſed thoſe ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combuſtible ground, about ten miles diſtant from Baku, a city in the north of Perſia, is the ſcene of the devotions of the Guebres. This ground is impregnated with inflammatory ſubſtances, and contains ſeveral old little temples; in one of which the Guebres pretend to preſerve the ſacred flame of the univerſal fire, which riſes from the end of a large hollow cane ſtuck into the ground, reſembling a lamp burning with very pure ſpirits. The Mahomedans are the declared enemies of the Gaurs, who were baniſhed out of Perſia by Shah Abbas. Their ſect, however, is ſaid to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Perſians and the Romans ſeem early to have driven the ancient Chriſtians into Perſia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many ſects are found that evidently have Chriſtianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Souffees, who are a kind of quietiſts, ſacrifice their paſſions to God, and profeſs the moral duties. The Sabean Chriſtians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaiſm and Mahomedaniſm; and are numerous towards the Perſian Gulf. The Armenian and Georgian Chriſtians are very numerous in Perſia.

The Perſians obſerve the faſt during the month of Ramazan (the 9th month of the Mahomedan year) with great ſtrictneſs and ſeverity. About an hour before day-light, they eat a meal which is called Sehre, and from that time until the next evening at ſun-ſet they neither eat nor drink of any thing whatever. If, in the courſe of the day, the ſmoke of a calean, or the ſmalleſt drop of water ſhould reach their lips, the faſt is in conſequence deemed broken, and of no avail. From ſun-ſet until the next morning they are allowed to refreſh themſelves. This

faſt, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of ſummer, as it ſometimes muſt do (the Mahomedan year being lunar), is extremely ſevere, eſpecially to thoſe who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time; and is ſtill rendered more ſo, as there are alſo ſeveral nights during its continuance, which they are enjoined to ſpend in prayer. The Perſians particularly obſerve two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound which he received from the hands of an aſſaſſin, three days before; which night is the 21ſt of Ramazan, the day of which is called by the natives the Day of Murder. The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomed: wherefore it is denominated the Night of Power.

LANGUAGE.] The common people, eſpecially towards the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian Sea, ſpeak Turkiſh: and the Arabic probably was introduced into Perſia under the caliphate, when learning flouriſhed in thoſe countries. Many of the learned Perſians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as a modiſh language, as we do the French. The pure Perſic is ſaid to be ſpoken in the ſouthern parts, on the coaſt of the Perſian Gulf, and in Iſpahan; but many of the provinces ſpeak a barbarous mixture of the Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages. Their Pater-noſter is of the following tenor: *Ei Padere ma kib der oſmoni; pac baſched mám tu; bay ayed padeſchahi tu; ſchwad chwaáſſe tu ben-jundaukib der oſmon niz derzemin; béh mara jmrouz nán keſaf rouz mara; wadarguaſar mara konáhan ma zjunaukibma niz mig ſarim ormán mara; wador ozmajiſch minedázzmara; likin chalas kun mara ez eſcherir.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Perſians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the eaſt. There is a manuſcript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the fineſt Perſian poets. Ferduſi and Sadi were among the moſt celebrated. The former compriſed the hiſtory of Perſia in a ſeries of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are ſaid by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of eaſtern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flouriſhed in the thirteenth century, and wrote many elegant pieces both in proſe and in verſe. Shemſeddin was one of the moſt eminent lyric poets that Aſia has produced; and Nakhſheb wrote in Perſian a book called the Tales of a Parrot, not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a moſt animated and elegant poet, who flouriſhed in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whoſe beautiful compoſitions, on a great variety of ſubjects, are preſerved at Oxford in twenty-two volumes. Hariri compoſed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery ſtyle, a moral work, in fifty diſſertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interſperſed with a number of agreeable adventures, and ſeveral fine pieces of poetry.

Of the ſprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are ſufficiently known to orientaliſts. It may, however, excite the curioſity of the Engliſh reader, that the poet Hafez, here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verſes; that the moſt powerful monarchs of the Eaſt ſought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchaſe the praiſes of his Muſe by all the honours and ſplendour of a court; and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of

myſtic piety to the ſuperſtitious Mahomedan; the oracle which, like the *Sortes Virgilianæ*, determined the councils of the wiſe, and prognoſticated the fate of armies and of ſtates. Seventeen odes have already been tranſlated into Engliſh by Mr. Not, with which he has publiſhed the originals, for the purpoſe of promoting the ſtudy of the Perſian language. The 21ſt ode has alſo appeared in an Engliſh dreſs, by the elegant pen of Sir William Jones.

The tomb of this celebrated and deſervedly admired poet ſtands about two miles diſtant from the walls of the city of Shirauz, on the north-eaſt ſide. It is placed in a large garden, and under the ſhade of ſome cypreſs trees of extraordinary ſize and beauty; it is compoſed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth. This was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one. On the top and ſides of the tomb are ſelect pieces from the poet's own works, moſt beautifully cut in the Perſian Nuſtaleek character. During the ſpring and ſummer ſeaſon, the inhabitants viſit here, and amuſe themſelves with ſmoaking, playing at cheſs, and other games, reading alſo the works of Hafez, who is in greater eſteem with them than any other of their poets, and they venerate him almoſt to adoration, never ſpeaking of him but in the higheſt terms of rapture and enthuſiaſm. A moſt elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb, for the purpoſe, and the inſpection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city aſſemble here; and ſhow every poſſible mark of reſpect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shirauz to his memory. Cloſe by the garden runs the ſtream of Roknabad, ſo celebrated in the works of Hafez, and, within a ſmall diſtance, the ſweet bower of Moſellay.

At preſent learning is at a very low ebb among the Perſians. Their boaſted ſkill in aſtronomy is now reduced to a mere ſmattering in that ſcience, and terminates in judicial aſtrology, ſo that no people in the world are more ſuperſtitious than the Perſians. The learned profeſſion in greateſt eſteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with aſtrology, becauſe every doſe muſt be in the lucky hour fixed by the aſtrologer, which often defeats the ends of the preſcriptions. It is ſaid, however, that the Perſian phyſicians are acute and ſagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no ſtrangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. The plague is but little known in this country; and almoſt equally rare are many other diſeaſes that are fatal in other places; ſuch as the gout, the ſtone, the ſmall-pox, conſumptions, and apoplexies. The Perſian practice of phyſic is therefore pretty much circumſcribed, and they are very ignorant in ſurgery, which is exerciſed by barbers, whoſe chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they truſt the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The monuments of antiquity in Perſia are more celebrated for their magnificence and expenſe, than their beauty or taſte. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Perſepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and compoſed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Perſia, but void of that elegance and beauty which are diſplayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Perſia are ſtupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with ſculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be ſeen at Iſpahan, ſixty feet high, conſiſting of the

ſkulls of beaſts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect ſuch a column of human ſkulls; but, upon the ſubmiſſion of the rebels, he performed his vow by ſubſtituting thoſe of brutes, each of the rebels furniſhing one.

The baths near Gaombroon are medicinal, and eſteemed among the natural curioſities of Perſia. The ſprings of the famous Naptha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural hiſtory for their ſurpriſing qualities; but the chief of the natural curioſities in this country is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houſes of men of quality in Perſia are in the ſame taſte with thoſe of the Aſiatic Turks already deſcribed. They are ſeldom above one ſtory high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumſy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houſes being built apart. Few of them have chimneys, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly conſiſts of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which ſerve them likewiſe as coverlets, with carpets under them.

Iſpahan or Spahawn, the capital of Perſia, is ſeated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which ſupplies it with water. It is ſaid to be twelve miles in circumference. The ſtreets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amuſement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houſes, where they ſpend their ſummer evenings; and different families aſſociate together. The royal ſquare is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth: and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Iſpahan 160 moſques, 1800 caravanſerais, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine ſquares, ſtreets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to ſhade and better accommodate the people. This capital is ſaid formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars; ſo that we may eaſily ſuppoſe, that it has loſt great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houſes were inhabited.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Iſpahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpreſſibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers and fruits of which are incomparable. The wines of Shirauz are reckoned the beſt of any in Perſia. This town is the capital of Farſiſtan, or Perſia Proper, and has a college for the ſtudy of eaſtern learning. It contains an uncommon number of moſques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houſes are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanſerais; that diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar (ſo called from its being built by Kherim Khan) is by far the handſomeſt. It is a long ſtreet, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed ſomething in the ſtyle of the piazzas in Covent-garden; it is lofty and well made; on each ſide are the ſhops of the tradeſmen, merchants, and others, in which are expoſed for ſale a variety of goods of all kinds; theſe ſhops are the property of the khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very eaſy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a ſpacious caravanſerai, of an octagon form, built of brick;

the entrance through a handſome arched gate-way; in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandiſe, and on the ſides, above and below, commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; theſe are alſo rented at a moderate monthly ſum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar, is another ſpacious caravanſerai of a ſquare form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to repreſent China-ware, and has a pleaſing effect to the eye.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Perſian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The Engliſh, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Perſians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which ſet out from various inland cities of Aſia, under the convoy of guards.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] It has been thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the ſame all over the Mahomedan countries.

Moſques are religious buildings, ſquare, and generally of ſtone: before the chief gate there is a ſquare court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whoſe roof is ſupported by marble pillars. Thoſe galleries ſerve for places of ablution before the Mahomedans go into the moſque. About every moſque there are ſix high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. Theſe towers, as well as the moſques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, inſtead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpoſe. No woman is allowed to enter the moſque; nor can a man with his ſhoes or ſtockings on. Near moſt moſques is a place of entertainment for ſtrangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran and praying.

The city of Shirauz is adorned (according to Mr. Francklin) with many fine moſques, particularly that built by the late Kherim Khan, which is a noble one. Being very well diſguiſed, ſays our traveller, in my Perſian dreſs, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobſerved. It is of a ſquare form; in the centre is a ſtone reſervoir of water, made for performing the neceſſary ablutions, previous to prayer; on the four ſides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, ſome of the fronts of which are covered with China tiles; but Kherim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls on each ſide, are engraven various ſentences from the Koran, in the Nuſhki character; and at the upper end of the ſquare is a large dome, with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the vakeel; or for the ſovereign: this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large ſilver lamps ſuſpended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another moſque, which the Perſians call the Muſjídi Noó, or the New Moſque, but its date is nearly coëval with the city itſelf; at leaſt, ſince it has been inhabited by Mahomedans; it is a ſquare building, of a noble ſize, and has apartments for prayer on each ſide; in them are many inſcriptions in the old Cufic character, which of themſelves denote the antiquity of the place.

The bagnios in the Mahomedan countries are wonderfully well-con-

ſtructed for the purpoſe of bathing. Sometimes they are ſquare, but oftener circular, built of white well-poliſhed ſtone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the firſt for dreſſing and undreſſing; the ſecond contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholeſome; though to thoſe not accuſtomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and ſtretches his limbs as if he were diſlocating every bone in the body; all which exerciſes are, in thoſe inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies ſucceed, and when coming out of the bath diſplay their fineſt clothes.

Police.] The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Perſia, is very ſtrict. At ſun-ſet, the gates of the city are ſhut; no perſon whatever is permitted either to come in or go out during thē night; the keys of the different gates being always ſent to the hakim or governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tablas, or drums are beaten at three different times; the firſt at eight o'clock, the ſecond at nine, and the third at half paſt ten. After the third tabla has ſounded, all perſons whatſoever found in the ſtreets by the daroga, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are inſtantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themſelves, are puniſhed, either by the baſtinado or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the càzi, and eccleſiaſtical ones (particularly divorces) by the ſheick al ſellaum, or head of the faith, an office anſwering to that of Mufti in Turkey. Juſtice is adminiſtered in Perſia in a very ſummary manner; the ſentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the ſpot. Theft is generally puniſhed with the loſs of noſe and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which ſituation he is expoſed upon a gibbet in one of the moſt public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment: a dreadful puniſhment, but it renders robberies in Perſia very uncommon. The puniſhments in this country are ſo varied and cruel, that humanity ſhudders at them.

Manufactures and commerce.] The Perſians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in ſilk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in theſe join fancy, taſte, and elegance, to richneſs, neatneſs, and ſhow; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dyeing excels that of Europe. Their ſilver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preſerving their luſtre. Their embroideries and horſe-furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glaſs manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artiſts, which is ſaid to be owing to the ſcarcity of timber all over Perſia. Their jewellers and goldſmiths are clumſy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glaſſes. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpreſſible diſadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them ſlaves to their kings, who often engroſs either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Perſians, who have little or no ſhipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the Engliſh and other nations, by the Gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the moſt gainful they

had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great ſcheme of the Engliſh in trading with the Perſians through Ruſſia, promiſed vaſt advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto anſwered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Peterſburg is not fond of ſuffering the Engliſh to eſtabliſh themſelves upon the Caſpian Sea, the navigation of which is now poſſeſſed by the Ruſſians. The Caſpian Sea is about 680 miles long, and 260 broad in the wideſt part: it has no tide, but is navigable by veſſels drawing from 9 to 10 feet water, with ſeveral good ports. The Ruſſian ports are Kiſlar and Gurief. Derbent and Niezabad belong to Perſia, as alſo Einzellee and Aſtrabad, with Baku, the moſt commodious haven in this ſea, and which has a fortreſs ſurrounded with high walls. As the manufactures and ſilk of Ghilan are eſteemed the beſt in Perſia, Reſchd on the Caſpian is one of the firſt commercial towns in this part of Aſia, and ſupplies the bordering provinces with European merchandiſe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both theſe are extremely precarious, as reſting in the breaſt of a deſpotic, and often capricious monarch. The Perſians, however, had ſome fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindneſs likewiſe was a diſqualification for the royal ſucceſſion. In other reſpects the king's will was a law for the people. The inſtances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practiſed by the Mahomedan kings of Perſia are almoſt incredible, eſpecially during the laſt two centuries. The reaſon given to the Chriſtian embaſſadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their moſt celebrated princes, was, that the Perſians were ſuch brutes, and ſo inſenſible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exerciſe of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counſellors, and the ſmalleſt diſobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Perſians have no degrees of nobility, ſo that the reſpect due to every man, on account of his high ſtation, expires with himſelf. The king has been known to prefer a younger ſon to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The king claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his ſubjects, and likewiſe a third of ſilk and cotton. No rank or condition of Perſians is exempted from ſevere taxations and ſervices. The governors of provinces have particular lands aſſigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenſes of the court, king's houſehold, and great officers of ſtate. The water that is let into fields and gardens is ſubject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahomedans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This conſiſted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raiſed bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but, according to the modern hiſtories of Perſia, they are eaſily recruited in caſe of a defeat. The Perſians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ſhips of war, until Kouli Khân built a royal navy; but ſince his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Perſian monarch are a lion couchant, looking at the riſing ſun. His title is Shah, or Sovereign;

Khan, and Sultan, which he aſſumes likewiſe, are Tartar titles. To acts of ſtate the Perſian monarch does not ſubſcribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: "This act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys."

HISTORY.] The Perſian empire ſucceeded the Aſſyrian or Babylonian. Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Chriſt, and reſtored the Iſraelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the perſon of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Chriſt. Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, whoſe deſcendents, in leſs than three centuries, were conquered by the Romans. The latter, however, never fully ſubdued Perſia; and the natives had princes of their own, from Arſaces called Arſacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The ſucceſſors of thoſe princes ſurvived the Roman empire itſelf, but were ſubdued by the famous Timur-Leng, or Tamerlane, whoſe poſterity were ſupplanted by a doctor of law, the anceſtor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be deſcended from Mahomed himſelf. His ſucceſſors, from him ſometimes called Sophis, though ſome of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a diſgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into ſuch a diſrepute with their ſubjects, barbarous as they were, that Huſſein, a prince of the Sefi race, who ſucceeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, ſon and ſucceſſor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himſelf was by Eſref, one of his general officers, who uſurped the throne. Prince Thamas, the repreſentative of the Sefi family, had eſcaped from the rebels, and aſſembling an army, took into his ſervice Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Eſref, and re-annexed to the Perſian monarchy all the places diſmembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At laſt the ſecret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after aſſuming the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, pretending that his ſervices were not ſufficiently rewarded, he rebelled againſt his ſovereign, made him a priſoner, and, it is ſuppoſed, put him to death.

This uſurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Hindooſtan, and the amazing booty he made there, have been mentioned in the deſcription of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconſiderable part of his plunder from India, loſing great part of it upon his return by the Mahrattas and accidents. He next conquered Uſbec Tartary; but was not ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Daghiſtan Tartars, whoſe country he found to be inacceſſible. He vanquiſhed the Turks in ſeveral engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to ſtrike terror into all his ſubjects by the moſt cruel executions. His conduct became ſo intolerable, and particularly his attempt to change the religion of Perſia to that of Omar, and ſtrangling the chief prieſts who reſiſted, that it was thought his brain was diſordered; and he was aſſaſſinated in his own tent, partly in ſelf-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, ſtarted up; and it may naturally be ſuppoſed, that a chronological and accurate account of theſe various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confuſion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the ſettlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and ſciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Perſia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom ſtruggling for power, and each endeavouring to render him-

ſelf independent of the other, torrents of blood were ſhed, and the moſt ſhocking crimes were committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Ruſſia, preſents to the view thouſands of inſtances of the miſery and devaſtation which has been occaſioned by theſe commotions.

From the accounts we have been able to collect, the number of pretenders to the throne of Perſia, from the death of Nadir Shah, until the final eſtabliſhment of Kerim Khan's government, was no leſs than nine, including himſelf. Kerim Khan Zund was a moſt favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death was in the ſouthern provinces. Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at laſt, after various encounters with doubtful ſucceſs, completely to ſubdue all his rivals; and finally to eſtabliſh himſelf as ruler of all Perſia. He was in power about thirty years, the latter part of which he governed Perſia under the appellation of Vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his reſidence, in gratitude for the aſſiſtance he had received from its inhabitants, and thoſe of the ſouthern provinces. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his ſubjects, who eſteemed and honoured him as the glory of Perſia. His character is moſt deſervedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained; ſo that, during his whole reign, there was not in Shirauz a ſingle riot productive of bloodſhed: beſides theſe merits, his averſion to ſevere puniſhments, his liberality and kindneſs to the poor, his toleration of people of different perſuaſions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities, and perſonal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own ſubjects, but greatly reſpected by foreign powers.

From the death of Kerim Khan, to the preſent time, a variety of competitors have been deſirous of filling the throne of Perſia. Of theſe we ſhall only mention the two principal. Akau Mahomed Khan keeps poſſeſſion of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Iſpahan, Hamadad, and Tauris, where he is acknowledged as ſovereign. Jaaffar Khan has poſſeſſion of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces of Beaboon and Shuſter: he alſo receives an annual preſent from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd: Abu Shehr and Lar alſo ſend him tribute. The ſouthern provinces are in general more fruitful than thoſe to the northward, they not having been ſo frequently the ſcenes of action during the late revolutions.

Jaaffar Khan is a middle-aged man, very corpulent, and has a caſt in his right eye: in the places where he is acknowledged, he is well beloved and reſpected. He is very mild in his diſpoſition, and juſt. In Shirauz he keeps up a moſt excellent police, and good government. He is very kind and obliging to ſtrangers in general, and to the Engliſh in particular. Of the two competitors who at preſent contend for the government of Perſia, he is the moſt likely, in caſe of ſucceſs againſt his opponent, to reſtore the country to a happy and reputable ſtate; but it will require a long ſpace of time, to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought it:—a country, if an oriental metaphor may be allowed, once blooming as the garden of Eden, fair and flouriſhing to the eye;—now, ſad reverſe! deſpoiled and leafleſs, by the cruel ravages of war and deſolating contention.

Intelligence was received at Conſtantinople, in December 1793, that Jaaffar Khan had been dethroned by his brother Mahomed Khan, who entered into the poſſeſſion of his dominions.

# ARABIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1300<br>Breadth 1200 | between | 35 and 60 East longitude.<br>12 and 30 North latitude. | 700,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Turkey, on the North; by the gulfs of Perfia or Baſſorah, and Ormus, which ſeparate it from Perfia, on the Eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, South; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Arabia Petræa, N. W. | - - - - - | SUEZ, E. long. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50. |
| 2. Arabia Deſerta, in the middle. | Haggiaz or Mecca | MECCA, E. lon. 43-30. N. lat. 21-20. |
| | | Siden |
| | | Medina |
| | Tehama | Dhafar. |
| 3. Arabia Felix, S. E. | Mocha | MOCHA, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45. |
| | | Sibet |
| | Hadramut | Hadramut |
| | Caſſeen | Caſſeen |
| | Segur | Segur |
| | Oman or Muſcat | Muſcat |
| | Jamama | Jamama |
| | Bahara | Elcalf. |

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preſerved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally ſaid, ſignifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is ſaid to ſignify both a thief and an inhabitant of the deſert. Theſe names juſtly belong to the Arabians, for they ſeldom let any merchandiſe paſs through the country without extorting ſomething from the owners, if they do not rob them.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, eaſt of the Red Sea, and thoſe called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the moſt noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES.] There are few mountains, ſprings, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which waſhes the north-eaſt limits of it. It is almoſt ſurrounded with ſeas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are thoſe of Roſalgate and Muſledon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a conſiderable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer paſſes over Arabia Felix, the air is exceſſively dry and hot, and the country is ſubject to hot poiſonous winds, like thoſe on the oppoſite ſhores of Perſia, which often prove fatal, eſpecially to ſtrangers. The ſoil, in ſome

parts, is nothing more than immenſe ſands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and ſometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or loſt. In theſe deſerts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at ſea, by a compaſs, or by the ſtars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, ſays Dr. Shaw, are no paſtures clothed with flocks, nor valleys ſtanding thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a loneſome deſolate wilderneſs, no other ways diverſified than by plains covered with ſand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unleſs ſometimes at the equinoxes, refreſhed with rain; and the intenſeneſs of the cold in the night is almoſt equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the ſouthern part of Arabia, deſervedly called the Happy, is bleſſed with an excellent ſoil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the ſea-coaſt, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which laſt are found ſcarcely any where in ſuch perfection as here and in Perſia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The moſt uſeful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traverſing the dry and parched deſerts of this country; for they are ſo formed that they can throw up the liquor from their ſtomach into their throats, by which means they can travel ſix or eight days without water. The camels uſually carry 800lbs. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to reſt, and in due time riſe with their load. The dromedary is a ſmall camel, with two bunches on its back, and remarkably ſwift. It is an obſervation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will ſmell at a diſtance, and ſet up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horſes are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of thoſe in England. They are only fit for the ſaddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their ſwiftneſs and high mettle. The fineſt breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is ſituated.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS.] The Arabians, like moſt of the nations of Aſia, are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are ſwift of foot, excellent horſemen, and are ſaid to be, in general, a martial brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, ſince they became acquainted with fire-arms, good markſmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds.

The Arabians, in general, are ſuch thieves, that travellers and pilgrims are ſtruck with terror on approaching the deſerts. Theſe robbers, headed by a captain, traverſe the country in conſiderable troops on horſeback, and aſſault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that ſo late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 perſons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though eſcorted by a Turkiſh army. On the ſea-coaſt they are mere pirates, and make prize of every veſſel they can maſter, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue ſhirt, tied about them with a white ſaſh or girdle; and ſome of them have a veſt of furs or ſheeps-ſkins over it; they alſo wear drawers, and ſometimes ſlippers, but no ſtockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almoſt naked; but, as in the eaſtern countries, the women are ſo wrapped up, that nothing can be diſcerned but their eyes. Like other Mahomedans, the Arabs eat all manner of fleſh, except that of hogs; and prefer the fleſh of camels, as we prefer veniſon to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the fleſh, as the Jews do, and like them refuſe ſuch fiſh as have no ſcales. Coffee, and tea, water, and ſherbet made of oranges, water, and ſugar, is their uſual drink: they have no ſtrong liquors.

Religion.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following hiſtory of Mahomed their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are ſtill pagans; but the people in general profeſs Mahomedaniſm.

Learning and language.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and ſkill in all the liberal arts, there is ſcarcely a country at preſent where the people are ſo univerſally ignorant. The vulgar language uſed in the three Arabias, is the Arabeſk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewiſe ſpoken, with ſome variation of dialect, over great part of the Eaſt, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is ſaid to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the Eaſt accounted the richeſt, moſt energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their ſchools, as Greek and Latin are amongſt Europeans, and uſed by Mahomedans in their worſhip: for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not ſuffer it to be read in any other; they look upon it to have been the language of Paradiſe, and think no man can be a maſter of it without a miracle, as conſiſting of ſeveral millions of words. The books which treat of it ſay they have no fewer than a thouſand terms to expreſs the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. The Paternoſter in Arabic is as follows:

*Abuna elladbi fi-ſſamwat; jetkaddas eſmâc; tati malacutac: taouri maſèbiatic, cama fi-ſſama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wagſor lena donubena wachataina, cama nogſor nachna lemen aca doina; wala tadalchalna fihajarib; laken mejjina me nneſcherir.* Amen.

Chief cities, curiosities, and arts.] What is called the Deſert of Sinai is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-eaſt, but to the ſouthward is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two parts, each ſo capacious as to be ſufficient to receive the whole camp of the Iſraelites.

From Mount Sinai may be ſeen Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh. On thoſe mountains are many chapels and cells, poſſeſſed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jeruſalem, pretend to ſhow the very ſpot where every miracle or tranſaction recorded in Scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muſcat, Suez, and Juddah, where moſt of the trade of this country is carried on.

Mocha is well-built, the houſes very lofty, and are, with the walls and forts, covered with a chinam or ſtucco, that gives a dazzling whiteneſs to them. The harbour is ſemicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are ſeveral handſome moſques in the city. Suez,

the Arſinoë of the ancients, is ſurrounded by the Deſert, and is but a mean, ill-built place. The ſhips are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Juddah is the place of the greateſt trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is interchanged, the former ſending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of theſe, with the profits of the port, are ſhared by the grand-ſignor and the ſheriff of Mecca, to whom jointly this place belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deſerve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomed, is a moſque, the moſt magnificent of any in the Turkiſh dominions; its lofty roof being raiſed in faſhion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, which make a delightful appearance, and are conſpicuous at a great diſtance. The moſque has a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the fineſt gildings and tapeſtry. The number of pilgrims who yearly viſit this place is almoſt incredible, every Muſſulman being required, by his religion, to come hither once in his life-time, or ſend a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the way to which Mahomed fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a ſtately moſque ſupported by 400 pillars, and furniſhed with 300 ſilver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "*Moſt Holy*," by the Turks, becauſe in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomed, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of ſilver tiſſue, which the baſhaw of Egypt, by order of the grand-ſignor, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a ſort of ſanctity from it, and is never to be uſed in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden creſcent, curiouſly wrought, and adorned with precious ſtones. Thither the pilgrims reſort, as to Mecca, but not in ſuch numbers.

Government.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are ſtyled xeriffs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and prieſt, in the ſame manner as the caliphs of the Saracens, the ſucceſſors of Mahomed. Theſe monarchs appear to be abſolute, both in ſpirituals and temporals; the ſucceſſion is hereditary, and they have no other laws than thoſe found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe ſubjection to the Turks, and are governed by baſhaws reſiding among them; but receive large gratuities from the grand-ſignor, for protecting the pilgrims that paſs through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no ſtanding regular militia, but their emirs command both the perſons and the purſes of their ſubjects, as the neceſſity of affairs requires.

History.] The hiſtory of this country in ſome meaſure differs from that of all others; for as the ſlavery and ſubjection of other nations make a great part of their hiſtory, that of the Arabs is entirely compoſed of their conqueſts or independence. The Arabs are deſcended from Iſhmael, of whoſe poſterity it was foretold, that they ſhould be invincible, "have their hands againſt every man, and every man's hands againſt theirs." They are at preſent, and have remained from the remoteſt ages, during the various conqueſts of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Towards the north, and the ſea-coaſts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the

ſouthern and inland parts acknowledge themſelves the ſubjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to haraſs and annoy all ſtrangers who come into their country. The conqueſts of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their hiſtory, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. Theſe, as well as their religion, began with one man, whoſe character forms a very ſingular phænomenon in the hiſtory of mankind. This was the famous Mahomed, a native of Mecca, a city of that diviſion of Arabia, which, from the luxuriancy of its ſoil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been eſteemed the loveliеſt and ſweeteſt region of the world, and diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of the Happy.

Mahomed was born in the ſixth century, in the year 569, in the reign of Juſtinian II. emperor of Conſtantinople. Though deſcended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, he was endued with a ſubtile genius, like thoſe of the ſame country, and poſſeſſed a degree of enterpriſe and ambition peculiar to himſelf, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occaſion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the ſervice of a rich merchant, upon whoſe death he married his widow, Khadija, and by her means came to be poſſeſſed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the Eaſt, he had obſerved the vaſt variety of ſects in religion, whoſe hatred againſt each other was ſtrong and inveterate, while, at the ſame time, there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully took advantage of theſe, by means of which, and by addreſſing himſelf to the love of power, riches, and pleaſure, paſſions univerſal among men, he expected to raiſe a new ſyſtem of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been eſtabliſhed. In this deſign he was aſſiſted by Sergius, a monk, whoſe libertine diſpoſition had made him forſake his cloiſter and profeſſion, and engage in the ſervice of Khadija, with whom he remained as a domeſtic when Mahomed was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for ſupplying the defects which his maſter, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, muſt have obſtructed the execution of his deſign. It was neceſſary, however, that the religion they propoſed to eſtabliſh ſhould have a divine ſanction; and for this purpoſe Mahomed turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often ſubject to fits of the epilepſy, a diſeaſe which thoſe whom it afflicts are deſirous to conceal. Mahomed gave out, therefore, that theſe fits were trances into which he was miraculouſly thrown by God Almighty, during which he was inſtructed in his will, which he was commanded to publiſh to the world. By this ſtrange ſtory, and by leading a retired, abſtemious, and auſtere life, he eaſily acquired a character for ſuperior ſanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himſelf ſufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthuſiaſm of his followers, he boldly declared himſelf a prophet ſent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his ſyſtem ſo narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthuſiaſtic, was enlarged by travelling into diſtant lands, whoſe manners and religion he had made a peculiar ſtudy. He propoſed that the ſyſtem he eſtabliſhed ſhould extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whoſe doctrines and prejudices he had taken

care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eaſtern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jeſus Chriſt was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanaſian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into theſe corners of the world from the perſecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of theſe countries were pagans. Theſe, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whoſe religious principle is weak, had given themſelves over to pleaſure and ſenſuality, or to the acquiſition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of ſenſe, which, together with the doctrine of predeſtination, compoſed the ſole principles of their religion and philoſophy. Mahomed's ſyſtem was exactly ſuited to theſe three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had ſent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moſes and Jeſus Chriſt were the moſt eminent; but the endeavours of theſe had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now ſent his laſt and greateſt prophet, with a commiſſion more ample than what Moſes or Chriſt had been entruſted with. He had commanded him not only to publiſh his laws, but to ſubdue thoſe who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end, to eſtabliſh a kingdom upon earth, which ſhould propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had deſigned utter ruin and deſtruction to thoſe who ſhould refuſe to ſubmit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the ſpoils and poſſeſſions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradiſe of all ſenſual enjoyments, eſpecially thoſe of love; that the pleaſures of ſuch as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intenſe, and vaſtly tranſcend thoſe of the reſt. Theſe, together with the prohibition of drinking ſtrong liquors (a reſtraint not very ſevere in warm climates), and the doctrine of predeſtination, were the capital articles of Mahomed's creed. They were no ſooner publiſhed, than a great number of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the prieſt before-mentioned, and compoſe a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we ſay the Bible, which means the Book. The perſon of Mahomed, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; ſo that the greater part of them were ſufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a deſign to cut him off; but Mahomed getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the City of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to cuſtom, greateſt at a diſtance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622nd year of Chriſt, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomed's age, and the tenth of his miniſtry, his followers, the Mahomedans, compute their time; and the æra is called, in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomed, by the aſſiſtance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his inſinuation and addreſs daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at leaſt to an acquieſcence, in his doctrines. The ſpeedy propagation of his ſyſtem among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the Eaſt, who were previouſly diſpoſed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forſook their ancient faith, and became Mahomedans. In a word, the contagion ſpread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Perſia; and

Mahomed, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in the year 627; and after ſubduing part of Arabia and Syria, died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both eſteemed divine among their ſubjects. Theſe were the caliphs of Perſia and of Egypt, under the laſt of which Arabia was included. The former of theſe turned their arms to the Eaſt, and made conqueſts of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens or Moors, (which they obtained becauſe they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced the greater part of Spain, France, Italy, and the iſlands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the ſucceſſors of that impoſtor ſpread their religion and conqueſts over the greateſt part of Aſia, Africa, and Europe; and they ſtill give law to a very conſiderable portion of mankind.

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## THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Niphon, Bongo, Tonſa, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN. They are ſituated about 150 miles eaſt of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41ſt degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of eaſt longitude. Their chief town is Jeddo, in the 141ſt degree of eaſt longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The iſlands of Japan are governed by a deſpotic ſovereign, called the *Kubo*, beſides whom there is a ſpiritual or eccleſiaſtical emperor, entitled the *Dairi*. The veneration entertained for the latter is little ſhort of the honours paid to their gods. He ſeldom goes out of his palace, his perſon being conſidered as too ſacred to be expoſed to the air, the rays of the ſun, or the view of the common people. He is brought into the world, lives, and dies, within the precincts of his court, the boundaries of which he never once exceeds during his whole life. His hair, nails, and beard, are accounted ſo ſacred, that they are never ſuffered to be cleanſed or cut by day-light; but this muſt be done by ſtealth, during the night, while he is aſleep. His holineſs never eats twice off the ſame plate, nor uſes any veſſel for his meals a ſecond time; they are immediately broken to pieces after they are uſed, to prevent their falling into unhallowed hands. He has twelve wives, only one of whom, however, is ſtyled empreſs. He confers all titles of honour; but the real power of government is exerciſed by the kubo.

The ſoil and productions of the country are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The Japaneſe are groſs idolaters, and ſo irreconcileable to Chriſtianity, that it is commonly ſaid the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themſelves to be no Chriſtians, and humour the Japaneſe in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtitions. Notwithſtanding all this compliance, the natives are very ſhy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagaſaki, in the iſland of Dezima, is the only place where they are ſuffered to trade. The complexions of the Japaneſe are in general yellowiſh, although ſome few, chiefly women, are almoſt white. Their narrow eyes and high eye-brows are like thoſe of the Chineſe and Tartars; and their noſes are ſhort and thick. Their hair is univerſally black.

The dreſs of the Japaneſe may with more propriety be termed national, than that of any other part of the world, as it not only differs from that of every other nation, but is uniform from the monarch down to the moſt inferior ſubject, ſimilar in both ſexes, and (which almoſt ſurpaſſes belief) has been unchanged for the ſpace of 2500 years. It conſiſts of one or more looſe gowns, tied about the middle with a ſaſh. People of rank have them made of ſilk, but the lower claſs of cotton ſtuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or ſilver flowers woven into the ſtuff. Their houſes are built with upright poſts, croſſed and wattled with bamboo, plaſtered both without and within, and white-waſhed. They generally have two ſtories; but the uppermoſt is low, and ſeldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. The public buildings, ſuch as temples and palaces, are larger, it is true, and more conſpicuous, but in the ſame ſtyle of architecture; and the roofs, which are decorated with ſeveral towers of a ſingular appearance, are their greateſt ornament.

The towns are ſometimes of a conſiderable ſize, always ſecured with gates, and frequently ſurrounded with walls and foſſés, and adorned with towers, eſpecially if a prince or governor of a province keeps his court there. The town of Jeddo is ſaid to be twenty-one hours' walk in circumference, or about twenty-one French leagues, and may vie in ſize with Pekin. The ſtreets are ſtraight and wide, and at certain diſtances divided by gates; and at each gate there is a very high ladder, from the top of which any fire that breaks out may be diſcovered, an accident that not unfrequently happens there ſeveral times in the week.

The furniture in Japan is as ſimple as the ſtyle of building. Neither cupboards, bureaus, ſophas, beds, tables, chairs, watches, looking-glaſſes, nor any thing elſe of the kind, are to be found in the apartments. To the greater part of theſe the Japaneſe are utter ſtrangers. Their ſoft floor-mats ſerve them for chairs and tables. A ſmall board, about twelve inches ſquare, and four in height, is ſet down before each perſon in company at every meal, which is ſerved up one diſh only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houſes as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and uſed only at their toilets. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houſes from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor ſtoves; inſtead of theſe they uſe large copper pots ſtanding upon legs. Theſe are lined on the inſide with loam, on which aſhes are laid to ſome depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which ſeems to be prepared in ſome manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The firſt compliment offered to a ſtranger, in their houſes, is a diſh of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are uſed by both ſexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inſeparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly; every houſe, whether public or private, has a bath, of which conſtant and daily uſe is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and reſpect to ſuperiors, are the characteriſtics of this nation. Their ſalutations and converſations between equals abound alſo with civility and politeneſs, to this children are early accuſtomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very ſevere; but puniſhments are ſeldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes againſt ſociety are committed. Commerce and manufactures flouriſh here; though as theſe

people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we ſee in Europe. Agriculture is ſo well underſtood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chineſe, and, in both caſes, with companies of privileged merchants. Beſides the ſugars, ſpices, and manufactured goods, which the Dutch ſend to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer-ſkins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greateſt part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandiſe they export from theſe iſlands, both for Bengal and Europe, conſiſts in 9000 cheſts of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25,000 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they ſend an annual preſent to the emperor, conſiſting of cloth, chintz, ſuccotas, cottons, ſtuffs, and trinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief is ſaid to be Guam (eaſt longitude 140, north latitude 14), are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering. We know nothing of them worth particular mention, excepting that lord Anſon landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreſhment for himſelf and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewiſe an oriental iſland. It is ſituated to the eaſt of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains which runs through the middle, beginning at the ſouth coaſt, and ending at the north. This is a very fine iſland, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. That part of the iſland which lies to the weſt of the mountains belongs to the Chineſe, who conſider the inhabitants of the eaſtern parts as ſavages, though they are ſaid to be a very inoffenſive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the ſame with the Chineſe already deſcribed. The Chineſe have likewiſe made themſelves maſters of ſeveral other iſlands in theſe ſeas, of which we ſcarcely know the names; that of Ainan is between ſixty and ſeventy leagues long, and between fifty and ſixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a ſhy, cowardly people, and live in the moſt unwholeſome part of the iſland; the coaſt, and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being poſſeſſed by the Chineſe.

The PHILIPPINES are ſaid to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chineſe Sea (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants conſiſt of Chineſe, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portugueſe, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Meſtes, a mixture of all theſe. The property of the iſlands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been diſcovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards, in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their ſituation is ſuch, between the eaſtern and weſtern continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the iſlands and places of the Eaſt Indies. Two ſhips from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent profit. The country is fruitful in all the neceſſaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Veniſon of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, ſheep, goats, and a particular large ſpecies of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The neſt of the bird ſaligan affords that diſſolving jelly which is ſo voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive ſurpriſingly in theſe iſlands. If a ſprig of an

orange or lemon-tree is planted here, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; ſo that the verdure and luxuriancy of the ſoil are almoſt incredible. The tree amet ſupplies the natives with water; and there is alſo a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields fair water enough for a draught; this abounds in the mountains, where water is moſt wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the diſtance of three leagues, and defended by the caſtle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the Engliſh under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, who took it by ſtorm, and humanely ſuffered the archbiſhop, who was the Spaniſh viceroy at the ſame time, to ranſom the place for about a million ſterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerouſly diſowned by him and the court of Spain, ſo that great part of the ranſom never was paid. The Spaniſh government is ſettled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other iſlands, particularly Mindanao, the largeſt next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call ſultans. The ſultan of Mindanao is a Mahomedan.

Upon the whole, though theſe iſlands are enriched with all the profuſion of nature, yet they are ſubject to moſt dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the ſoil is peſtered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whoſe poiſons kill almoſt inſtantaneouſly. Some of their mountains are volcanoes.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. Theſe are not out of ſight of each other, and lie all within the compaſs of twenty-five leagues to the ſouth of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between one degree ſouth, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. The iſlands produce neither corn nor rice, ſo that the inhabitants live upon bread made of ſago. Their chief produce conſiſts of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vaſt quantities; which are monopoliſed by the Dutch with ſo much jealouſy, that they deſtroy the plants, leſt the natives ſhould ſell the ſupernumerary ſpices to other nations. Theſe iſlands, after being ſubject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, ſubordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largeſt of them, though not more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are ſituated between 127 and 128 degrees eaſt longitude, and between four and five ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Lantor, the chief towns of which are Lantor, Polerong, Roſinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on the iſlands are thoſe of Revenge and Naſſau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on theſe iſlands only, and they are entirely ſubject to the Dutch. The great nutmeg harveſt is in June and Auguſt.

AMBOYNA. This iſland, taken in a large ſenſe, is one of the moſt conſiderable of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is ſituated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of ſouth latitude, and 120 leagues to the eaſtward of Batavia. Amboyna is about ſeventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garriſon of 7 or 800 men, beſides ſmall forts, which protect their clove plantations. It is well known, that when the Portugueſe were driven off this iſland, the trade of it was carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter, in firſt torturing and then murdering the Engliſh, and thereby engroſſing the whole trade, and

that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but will be tranſmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy at that period, to all poſterity. This tragical event happend in 1622.

The iſland of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is ſituated under the equator, between the iſland of Borneo and the Spice Iſlands, at the diſtance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This iſland, notwithſtanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief productions are pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the ſtudy of poiſons, with a variety of which nature has furniſhed them. The Dutch have a fortification on this iſland; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom reſides in the town of Macaſſar. In this, and indeed in almoſt all the oriental iſlands, the inhabitants live in houſes built on large poſts, which are acceſſible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their ſecurity againſt venomous animals. They are ſaid to be hoſpitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chineſe. Their port of Jampoden is the moſt capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewiſe fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two other Spice Iſlands lying under the equator, and will ſink any ſhip that attempts to traffic in thoſe ſeas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. Theſe are ſituated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between eight degrees north, and eight degrees ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three firſt, from their great extent and importance, require to be ſeparately deſcribed.

BORNEO is ſaid to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and till New-Holland was diſcovered to be an iſland, was conſidered to be the largeſt iſland in the world. The inland part of the country is marſhy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The ſoil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to reſemble a man the moſt. The original inhabitants live in the mountains, and make uſe of poiſoned darts; but the ſea-coaſt is governed by Mahomedan princes; the chief port of this iſland is Benjar-Maſſeen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the eaſt, and Java on the ſouth-eaſt, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtraits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees and upwards, north-weſt of it, and five on the ſouth-eaſt: and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This iſland produces ſo much gold, that it has been thought to be the Ophir* mentioned in the ſcriptures; but Mr. Marſden, in his late hiſtory of the iſland, thinks it was unknown to the ancients.—Its chief trade with the Europeans is in pepper. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company have two ſettlements here, Bencoolen and Fort Marlborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahomedan princes who poſſeſs the ſea-coaſts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of the adjacent iſlands.

* There is a mountain in the iſland which is called Ophir by the Europeans, whoſe ſummit, above the level of the ſea, is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriffe by 577 feet.

Rain is very frequent here; ſometimes very heavy, and almoſt always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are ſeveral volcanoes on the iſland. The people who inhabit the coaſt are Malays, who came hither from the peninſula of Malacca; but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from thoſe of the Malays; the latter uſing the Arabic character. The people between the diſtricts of the Engliſh company and thoſe of the Dutch at Palimban, on the other ſide of the iſland, write on long narrow ſlips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the cuſtom of other eaſtern nations. Theſe inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in ſmall villages called Dooſans, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, ſome written ones, by which they puniſh offenders, and terminate diſputes. They have almoſt all of them, and particularly the women, large ſwellings in the throat, ſome nearly as big as a man's head, but in general as big as an oſtrich's egg, like the goîtres of the Alps. That part of this iſland which is called the Caſſia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and cuſtoms. They have no king, but live in villages independently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify their villages very ſtrongly with double fences of camphor-plank, pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between theſe fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewiſe pointed, which are concealed by the graſs, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take priſoners they put to death and eat; and their ſkulls they hang up as trophies in the houſes where the unmarried men and boys eat and ſleep. They allow of polygamy: a man may purchaſe as many wives as he pleaſes; but their number ſeldom exceeds eight. All their wives live in the ſame houſe with the huſband, and the houſes have no partition; but each wife has her ſeparate fire-place. It is from this country that moſt of the caſſia ſent to Europe is produced. The caſſia-tree grows to fifty or ſixty feet, with a ſtem of about two feet in diameter, and a beautiful and regular ſpreading head. Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the iſland of ENGANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers which entirely ſurround it. It is inhabited by naked ſavages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and ſpeak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring iſlands.

The greateſt part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of ſix degrees ſouth, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furniſhed with one of the fineſt harbours in the world. The town itſelf is built in the manner of thoſe in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and ſurrounded with regular fortifications; but its ſuburbs are ſaid to be ten times more populous than itſelf. The government here is a mixture of eaſtern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a ſplendor ſuperior to that of any European potentate, except upon ſome ſolemn occaſions. This city is as beautiful as it is ſtrong; and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues,

render it a moſt agreeable reſidence. The deſcription of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the ſuburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almoſt every nation in the world; the Chineſe reſiding in this iſland are computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarouſly maſſacred, without the ſmalleſt offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This maſſacre was too unprovoked and deteſtable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, ſent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of ſince. A Dutch garriſon of 3000 men conſtantly reſides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the iſland and the neighbourhood of the city.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR iſlands. Theſe iſlands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furniſh proviſions, conſiſting of tropical fruits and other neceſſaries, for the ſhips that touch there. They are otherwiſe too inconſiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmleſs inoffenſive people.

CEYLON. This iſland, though not the largeſt, is thought to be, by nature, the richeſt and fineſt iſland in the world. It is ſituated in the Indian Ocean near Cape Comorin; the ſouthern extremity of the Hither Peninſula of India being ſeparated from the coaſt of Coromandel by a narrow ſtrait; and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with ſome ſhow of reaſon, the terreſtrial paradiſe; and it produces, beſides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, muſk, cryſtal, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, lead, iron, ſteel, copper; beſides cinnamon, gold and ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fiſh abound here. Every part of the iſland is well wooded and watered; and beſides ſome curious animals peculiar to itſelf, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, eſpecially if ſpotted: but ſeveral noxious animals, ſuch as ſerpents and ants, are likewiſe found here. The chief commodity of the iſland is its cinnamon, which is by far the beſt in all Aſia. Though its trees grow in great profuſion, yet the beſt is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief ſettlement of the Dutch and Negambo. The middle part of the country is mountainous and woody, ſo that the rich and beautiful valleys are left in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, who have in a manner ſhut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which ſtands on a mountain in the middle of the iſland, ſo that he has ſcarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The deſcendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglaſſes, who, though idolaters, value themſelves upon maintaining their ancient laws and cuſtoms. They are, in general, a ſober, inoffenſive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portugueſe, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to obſerve, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this iſland, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the beſt; and the body of the tree, which, when ſtripped, is white, ſerves for building and other uſes. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious iſland to defend them againſt the Portugueſe, whom they expelled, and have monopoliſed it ever ſince to themſelves. Indeed, in January 1782, Trincomale, the chief ſea-port of the iſland, was taken by the Engliſh, but ſoon afterwards retaken by the French, and reſtored

to the Dutch by the laſt treaty of peace. In Auguſt, 1795, it was again taken by the Engliſh, in whoſe poſſeſſion it ſtill remains.

The MALDIVES. Theſe are a vaſt cluſter of ſmall iſlands or little rocks juſt above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly reſorted to by the Dutch, who carry on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of ſmall ſhells, which go, or rather formerly went, for money upon the coaſts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medical capacity. "Of this tree (ſays a well-informed author) they build veſſels twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, maſts, ſails, rigging, anchors, cables, proviſions, and firing, are all from this uſeful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coaſt, in ſpeaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental iſlands, nothing certain can be ſaid. Each iſland has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chineſe, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Indian words, are ſo frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in thoſe matters, to know the radical language. The ſame may be almoſt ſaid of their religion; for though its original is certainly pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahomedan, Jewiſh, Chriſtian, and other foreign ſuperſtitions.

The ſea which ſeparates the ſouthern point of the Peninſula of Kamtſchatka from Japan, contains a number of iſlands in a poſition from north-north-eaſt to ſouth-ſouth-weſt, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in ſeveral of them are volcanoes and hot ſprings. The principal of theſe iſlands are inhabited: but ſome of the little ones are entirely deſert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other, in reſpect both to their ſituation and natural conſtitution. The foreſts in the more northern ones are compoſed of laryx and pines; thoſe in the ſouthern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In ſome of them are bears and foxes. The ſea-otter appears on the coaſts of all theſe iſlands, as well as whales, ſea-horſes, ſeals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of theſe iſlands have a great likeneſs to the Japaneſe, in their manners, language, and perſonal appearance; others very much reſemble the Kamtſchadales. The northern iſlands acknowledge the ſovereignty of the empire of Ruſſia; but thoſe of the ſouth pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians diſcover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hoſpitable; but adverſity renders them timid, and prompts them to ſuicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an eſpecial affection for thoſe of their reſpective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they ſpeak and pronounce it ſlowly. The men are employed in hunting, fiſhing for ſea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their foreſts produce, or that the ſea caſts upon their ſhores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern iſles they ſew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The ſouthern iſlanders are more refined and poliſhed than the northern, and carry on a ſort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japaneſe utenſils of metal and varniſhed wood, ſkillers, ſabres, different ſtuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all ſorts of trinkets, and ſmall wares.

Plate XXII.

# AFRICA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

SPAIN
Str.of Gibraltar
Madeira I.
CANARY ISLES
Ascension I.
St Helena I.
Dos Picos
CAPE VERD ISLES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SEA
ETHIOPIAN
SOUTHERN OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
Equinoctial Line
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
West Longitude
Degrees E. from London
BARBARY
ZAHARA OR THE DESART
GUINEA
NEGROLAND
ZENHAGA
TAFILET
TERGA
TABOO
TRIPOLI
BARCA
ZALA
BORNOU
NUBIA
CASHNAH
MEDRA
BENIN
DAHOMY
ADEL
ABYSSINIA
SENNAR
Kordofan
MONOMOTAPA
MONGALA
MAURECA
MAGADOXA
AJAN
ALABA
GINGIRO
MUJAK
MAKOKO
ANZICO
LOANGO
CONGO
ANGOLA
BENGUELA
HOTTENTOTS
Algiers
Tunis
Tripoli
Candia
Cyprus
NATOLIA
SYRIA
Aleppo
Jerusalem
Cairo
Suez
Mecca
Medina
Barabra
Abyssinia
Bali
Gooderoo
Buzano
Melinda
Mombaza
Baxos del Patram
Francisco
Alfonse
St Francisco
St Miguel
Comora I.
Mohilla I.
Johanna
Mauritius I.
Diego Rois
Bourbon I.
Madagascar
Sable I.
Dos Garaios
St John of Lisbon
Banks of Nazareth
Terra dos Naoenctas
Hamcumquas
Chacumquas
Inhamior
Inhamione
Monomotapa
Mozumbo
Aculunga
Sofala
India I.
Cape Lopo
Gabon or Ponga
Loango
Angola
Benguela
Cape of Good Hope
Table Bay
False B.
Dutch Fort
Cochonais
Lucia I.
Elephants R.
Morios de Piedra
Cabonas
Imabari
Bramahil R.
Angrado
Ilhec
Farila
Sofala
Sedanda
Gold Mines
Limboe
Monomotapa
Mocaranga
Manicusa
Inhamione
Inhamior
Tete or San Jago
Abutua
Jaga Cafauji
Moravi
Zimbas
Mocoranga
Sacomba
Chicova
Mambos
Cafauji
Zambre
Zambre L. of
Monfol
Mosquanes
Amoxa
The Jages
Anthropophages
or Men Eaters
Melinda
Formosa
Pemba I.
Zanjabar I.
Monjia I.
Mongalo
Quilla R.
Cacongo
Angola
R. Zaire
Lubolo
Sundi
Fungeno
Matamba
Casangi
Loanda
Benguela
Angra da Maria
Angra Road
Angra Pequena
Bay St Ambrose
Bay St Augustin
Cape Frio
Cape Negro
Cape Roxo
Cape Monte
Cape Verga
Cape Mirik
Cape Penia
Cape Nicholas
Cape Lucar
Cape Bajador
Cape Blanco
Cape Barbas
Cape Carvoeiro
Cape Tenez
Cape Spartel
Cape Bona
Cape Mayo
Cape Gallant
Cape Mary
Cape Sierra Leona
Cape Gaut
Cape Formosa
Cape Lopez
Cape Negro
Cape Frederick Henry
Cape Christmas Bay
Cape Agulhas
Cape Lopo
Cape Corrientes
Cape Romain
Cape Baixas
Cape Gardafui
Cape Orsin
Cape Negro Bay
Cape Stephens
Cape St Christopher
Cape Natal
Cape Boamarro
Cape Antongil
Cape Mauritius
Cape Dauphin
Cape Fanshere
Cape Mary
Cape Lopez
Cape Formosa
Cape Verga
Cape Mirik
Cape Penia
Cape Nicholas
Cape Lucar
Cape Bajador
Cape Blanco
Cape Barbas
Cape Carvoeiro
Cape Tenez
Cape Spartel
Cape Bona
Cape Mayo
Cape Gallant
Cape Mary
Cape Sierra Leona
Cape Gaut
Cape Formosa
Cape Lopez
Cape Negro
Cape Frederick Henry
Cape Christmas Bay
Cape Agulhas
Cape Lopo
Cape Corrientes
Cape Romain
Cape Baixas
Cape Gardafui
Cape Orsin
Cape Negro Bay
Cape Stephens
Cape St Christopher
Cape Natal
Cape Boamarro
Cape Antongil
Cape Mauritius
Cape Dauphin
Cape Fanshere
Cape Mary
Cape Lopez
Cape Formosa

# AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand diviſion of the globe, in ſhape bears ſome reſemblance to the form of a pyramid, the baſe being the northern part of it, which runs along the ſhores of the Mediterranean; and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninſula of a prodigious extent, joined to Aſia only by a neck of land, about ſixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, uſually called the Iſthmus of Suez; and its utmoſt length from north to ſouth, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 ſouth latitude, is 4,300 miles; and the broadeſt part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees weſt longitude to Cape Guardaſui, near the ſtraits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 eaſt longitude, is 3,500 miles from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which ſeparates it from Europe; on the eaſt by the Iſthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divides it from Aſia; on the ſouth by the Southern Ocean; and on the weſt by the great Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America. As the equator divides this extenſive country almoſt in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almoſt inſupportable to an European; it being there increaſed by the rays of the ſun, from vaſt deſerts of burning ſands. The coaſts, however, and banks of rivers, ſuch as the Nile, are generally fertile; and moſt parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being ſo populous as Europe and Aſia. From what has been ſaid, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, ſnow ſeldom falls in the plains; and it is generally never found but on the tops of the higheſt mountains. The natives in theſe ſcorching regions would as ſoon expect that marble ſhould melt, and flow in liquid ſtreams, as that water by freezing ſhould loſe its fluidity, be arreſted by the cold, and, ceaſing to flow, become like the ſolid rock.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in Africa, are the Gambia, which falls into the Atlantic or Weſtern Ocean, at Cape St. Mary, and is navigable for ſhips of 150 tons burthen, five hundred miles from its ſource; the Senegal, which riſes about a hundred miles eaſt of the Gambia, and falls, likewiſe, into the Atlantic Ocean, about eighty miles north of Cape Verd, after running a much longer courſe. The Niger, which riſes about ninety miles to the eaſt of the head of the Senegal, and runs *eaſtward* * by Tombuctoo, Houſſa,

* This river has long been an object of reſearch and diſpute with reſpect to its origin and courſe. According to Mr. Lucas's communications to the African Aſſociation, "the riſe and the termination of the Niger are unknown, but the courſe is from *eaſt to weſt*." He adds, "ſo great is its rapidity, that no veſſel can aſcend its ſtream; and ſuch is the want of ſkill, or ſuch the abſence of commercial inducements among the nations which inhabit its borders, that, even with the current, neither veſſels nor boats are ſeen to navigate. That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger ſhould refuſe to profit by its navigation, may juſtly ſurpriſe the traveller; but much greater is his aſtoniſhment, when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the ſtream would give, is uſeleſsly offered to their acceptance; for ſuch is the want of ſkill, or ſuch the ſettled diſlike of the people to this ſort of proviſion, that the fiſh, with which the river abounds, are left in undiſturbed poſſeſſion of the waters." (Proceedings of the African Aſſociation, p. 183-189.) It was alſo generally believed, that the Gambia and Senegal were branches of the Niger. All theſe reports are, however, fully diſproved by the late diſcoveries of Mr. Park, who reached the banks of the Niger, or, as it is called by the natives, the Joliba, at Sego, the capital of Bam-

and Caſhna, terminating, as is ſuppoſed, in ſome lakes farther to the eaſtward; and the Nile, which dividing Egypt into two parts, diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious courſe from its ſource in Abyſſinia. The moſt conſiderable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Weſtern Ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt. It had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of aſtronomy, who uſed to obſerve the ſtars from its ſummit; on which account the poets repreſent him as bearing the heavens on his ſhoulders The mountains of the Moon, extending themſelves between Abyſſinia and Monomotapa, and which are ſtill higher than thoſe of Atlas. Thoſe of Sierra Leone, or the Mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. Theſe were ſtyled by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being ſubject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their firſt meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a ſugar-loaf, and is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name near the coaſt. The moſt noted capes or promontories in this country, are Cape Verd, ſo called becauſe the land is always covered with green trees and moſſy ground. It is the moſt weſterly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, ſo denominated by the Portugueſe, when they firſt went round it in 1489, and diſcovered the paſſage to Aſia. It is the ſouthern extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; and the general rendezvous of ſhips of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. It is at preſent in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, who took it from the Dutch in September 1795 There is but one ſtrait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The ſituation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, ſtanding as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the reſt. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Portugueſe, the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the French, who have ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, but that of the moſt authentic hiſtorians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of ſea-coaſt, with noble, large, deep rivers, it ſhould have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; and that it ſhould be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of theſe rivers are the moſt excellent harbours, deep, ſafe, calm, ſheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly ſecure by fortifications; but quite deſtitute of ſhipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandiſe. In ſhort, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful as well as convenient, within itſelf, ſeems to be almoſt entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unſolicitous of reaping the be-

barra, where he ſaw it, "flowing *ſlowly to the eaſtward.*" On the river were numerous canoes; and, proceeding farther, he tells us, that he "paſſed a great many villages, inhabited chiefly by fiſhermen, who caught great plenty of fiſh, by means of long cotton nets, which they make themſelves, and uſe nearly in the ſame manner as nets are uſed in Europe." Thoſe who would ſee more concerning this celebrated river, and the different opinions and notices of ancient and modern geographers and travellers, relative to its riſe, courſe, and termination, may conſult the ample and ingenious diſquiſition on that ſubject, in Major Rennell's *Geographical Illuſtration of Africa*, ſubjoined to Mr. *Park's Travels.*

nefits which nature has provided for them, but alſo by the more civiliſed Europeans who are ſettled in it, particularly the Portugueſe.

Africa once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the moſt extenſive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful ſtate of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itſelf, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the aſſiſtance of the Mauritanians, ſubdued Carthage, and, by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and ſtates. After this the natives, conſtantly plundered, and conſequently impoveriſhed, by the governors ſent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary, in the ſeventh century. Theſe were ſucceeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahomedan religion, whoſe profeſſors carried deſolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with reſpect to religion, may be divided into three ſorts; namely, Pagans, Mahomedans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the more numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and theſe are generally black. The Mahomedans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs Egypt, and almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coaſt. The people of Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites. There are alſo ſome Jews in the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is poſſeſſed of.

There are ſcarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, who agree in the modern diviſions of Africa; and for this very reaſon, that ſcarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and conſequently we muſt acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of ſeveral of the inland nations, which may be ſtill reckoned among the unknown and undiſcovered parts of the world; but, according to the beſt accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table:

| | Nations. | Length. | Breadth. | Square Miles. | Chief Cities. | Diſt. and bearing fr. Lond. | Diff. of time from London. | Religion. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Barbary. | Morocco, Tafilet, &c. | 500 | 480 | 219,400 | Fez | 1080 S. | 0 24 aft. | Mahom. |
| | Algiers | 480 | 100 | 143,600 | Algiers | 920 S. | 0 13 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Tunis | 220 | 170 | 54,400 | Tunis | 990 SE. | 0 39 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Tripoli | 700 | 240 | 75,000 | Tripoli | 1260 SE. | 0 56 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Barca | 400 | 300 | 66,400 | Polemeta | 1440 SE. | 1 26 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Egypt | 600 | 250 | 140,700 | Grand Cairo | 1920 SE. | 2 21 bef. | ahom. |
| | Biledulgerid | 2500 | 350 | 485,000 | Dara | 1565 S. | 0 32 aft. | Pagans |
| | Zaara | 3400 | 660 | 739,200 | Tegeſſa | 1800 S. | 0 24 aft. | Pagans |
| | Negroland | 2200 | 840 | 1,026,000 | Madinga | 2500 S. | 0 38 aft. | Pagans |
| | Guinea | 1800 | 360 | 510,000 | Benin | 2700 S. | 0 20 bef. | Pagans |
| Up. Ethiopia. | Nubia | 940 | 600 | 264,000 | Nubia | 2418 SE. | 2 12 bef. | M. & Pag. |
| | Abyſſinia | 900 | 800 | 378,000 | Gondar | 2880 SE. | 2 30 bef. | Chriſtian. |
| | Abex | 540 | 130 | 160,000 | Doncala | 3580 SE. | 2 36 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 ſquare miles. | | | | | | | |
| Lwoer Guinea. | Loango | 410 | 300 | 49,400 | Loango | 3300 S. | 0 44 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | Congo | 540 | 420 | 172,800 | St. Salvador | 3480 S. | 1 0 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | Angola | 360 | 250 | 38,400 | Loando | 3750 S. | 0 58 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | Benguela | 430 | 180 | 64,000 | Benguela | 3900 S. | 0 58 bef. | Pagans |
| | Mataman | 450 | 240 | 144,000 | No Towns | * * * | * * | Pagans |
| | Ajan | 900 | 300 | 234,000 | Brava | 3702 SE. | 2 40 bef. | Pagans |
| | Zanguebar | 1400 | 350 | 275,000 | Melinda or Mozambiq. | 4440 SE. | 2 38 bef. | Pagans |
| | Monomotapa | 960 | 660 | 222,500 | Monomota. | 4500 S. | 1 18 bef. | Pagans |
| | Monemugi | 900 | 660 | 310,000 | Chicova | 4260 SE. | 1 44 bef. | Pagans |
| | Sofola | 480 | 300 | 97,000 | Sofola | 4600 SE. | 1 18 bef. | Pagans |
| | Terra de Nat | 600 | 350 | 184,000 | No Towns | * * * | * * * | Pagans |
| | Caffraria or Hottentot | 708 | 660 | 200,340 | Cape of G. Hope. | 5200 S. | 1 4 bef. | Moſt ſtupid Pag. |

The principal iſlands of Africa lie in the Indian Seas and Atlantic Oceans; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and ſerve to refreſh their ſhipping to and from India.

| Islands. | Sq. Miles. | Towns. | Fr. with or belong to |
|---|---|---|---|
| Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea | - - - | Babel Mandel - - | All Nations |
| Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean | 3,600 | Caulaufia - - - | Ditto |
| The Comora Iſles, ditto - - | 1,000 | Joanna - - - - | Ditto |
| Madagaſcar, ditto - - - - | 168,000 | St. Auſtin - - - | Ditto |
| Mauritius, ditto - - - - | 1,840 | Mauritius - - - | French |
| Bourbon, ditto - - - - | 2,100 | Bourbon - - - | Ditto |
| St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean | - - - | St. Helena - - | Engliſh |
| Aſcenſion, ditto - - - - | - - - | - - - - - - - | Uninhabited |
| St. Matthew, ditto - - - | - - - | - - - - - - - | Ditto |
| St. Thomas, Anaboa, Prince Iſland, Fernandopo, ditto | - - - | St. Thomas, Anaboa | Portugueſe |
| Cape Verd Iſlands, ditto - - | 2,000 | St. Domingo - - | Ditto |
| Goree, ditto - - - - - | - - - | Fort St. Michael | French |
| Canaries, ditto - - - - - | - - - | Palma, St. Chriſtopher | Spaniſh |
| Madeiras, ditto - - - - | 1,500 | Santa Cruz, Funchal | Portugueſe |
| The Azores, or Weſtern Iſles, lie nearly at an equal diſtance from Europe, Africa, and America, ditto | 2,000 | Angra, St. Michael | Ditto |

Having given the reader ſome idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their ſuppoſed dimenſions, we ſhall now proceed to deſcribe particularly the more conſiderable countries, as far as they are known to Europeans from the accounts of the lateſt travellers, beginning, as uſual, from the north, with Egypt and the States of Barbary.

# EGYPT.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 600, Breadth 250 | between | 20 and 32 north latitude. 28 and 36 eaſt longitude. | 140,700 |

Boundaries.] It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, Eaſt; by Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South; and by the Deſert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Northern diviſion contains | Lower Egypt | Grand Cairo, E. long. 32. N. lat. 30. |
| | | Bulac |
| | | Alexandria |
| | | Roſetta, or Raſhid |
| | | Damietta |
| Southern diviſion contains | Upper Egypt | Sayd, or Thebes |
| | | Coſſire |

Air.] It is obſerved by M. Volney, that during eight months in the year (from March to November) the heat is almoſt inſupportable by an

European. "During the whole of this ſeaſon, the air is inflamed, the ſky ſparkling, and the heat oppreſſive to all unaccuſtomed to it."—The other months are more temperate. The ſoutherly winds which ſometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poiſonous* winds, or the *hot winds of the Deſert*. They are of ſuch extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body expoſed to them can withſtand their fatal influence. During the three days which it generally laſts, the ſtreets are deſerted: and woe to the traveller whom this wind ſurpriſes remote from ſhelter; when it exceeds three days, it is inſupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almoſt blinded with drifts of ſand. Theſe evils are remedied by the riſing and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the leaſt acquainted with literature, knows that the vaſt fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country), but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to riſe when the ſun is vertical in Ethiopia; and the annual rains fall there, viz. from the latter end of May to September, and ſometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be ſeen in the plains but the tops of foreſts and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all ſorts of feſtivities. The banks, or mounds, which confine it, are cut by the Turkiſh baſha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was preſent on the occaſion, the ſpectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is led into what they call the Chalige, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is diſtributed into cuts, for ſupplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, ſuch is the fertility of the ſoil, that the labour of the huſbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and, in about ſix weeks, nothing can be more charming than the proſpect which the face of the country preſents, in riſing corn, vegetables, and verdure of every ſort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits perfume the air. The culture of pulſe, melons, ſugar-canes, and other plants which require moiſture, is ſupplied by ſmall but regular cuts from ciſterns and reſervoirs. Dates, plantains, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harveſt-months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and of cucumbers the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants), one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian paſturage is equally prolific, moſt of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the ſheep four lambs a year.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is ſaid, that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen in raiſing water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of aſſes, upon which the Chriſtians ride, thoſe people not being ſuffered by the Turks to ride on any other beaſt. The Egyptian horſes are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great ſpeed, turn ſhort, ſtop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horſe, an amphibious animal, reſembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horſe, is found in Upper Egypt. Tigers, hyænas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The cameleon, a little animal ſomething reſembling a lizard, that changes colour as you ſtand to look upon him, is found here, as well as in other countries. The crocodile was for-

merly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not ſeem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four ſhort legs, with large feet, armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable ſcales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the ſedge, and other cover, on the ſides of rivers; and, pretty much reſembling the trunk of an old tree, ſometimes ſurpriſes the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces, likewiſe, great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) ſomewhat reſembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its deſtroying ſerpents and peſtiferous inſects.—They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a ſpecies of them is ſaid to have been lately diſcovered in other parts of Africa. Oſtriches are common here, and are ſo ſtrong, that the Arabs ſometimes ride upon their backs.

The ceraſtes, or horned viper, inhabits the greater part of the eaſtern continent, eſpecially the deſert ſandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa: this is ſuppoſed to be the aſpic which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully ſupplied by water, muſt then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baſkets of figs muſt have come from thence, and the aſpic, or ceraſtes, that was hid in them, from the adjoining deſert, where there are plenty to this day.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. As the population of Egypt is almoſt confined to the banks of the Nile, and the reſt of the country inhabited by Arabs and other nations, we can ſay little upon this head with preciſion. Mr. Browne, a late traveller, who was in Egypt in 1792, eſtimates its whole population at two millions and a half. It ſeems, however, to be certain, that Egypt is at preſent not near ſo populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being ſlaves to the Turks.—They are, however, ſtill very numerous; but what has been ſaid of the populouſneſs of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The deſcendents of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking, ſlovenly people, immerſed in indolence, and are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Copts: in their complexions they are rather ſun-burnt, than ſwarthy or black. Their anceſtors were once Chriſtians, and, in general, they ſtill pretend to be of that religion; but Mahomedaniſm is the prevailing worſhip among the natives. Thoſe who inhabit the villages and fields, at any conſiderable diſtance from the Nile, conſiſt of Arabs, or their deſcendents, who are of a deep ſwarthy complexion, and they are repreſented, by the beſt authorities, as retaining the patriarchal cuſtom of tending their flocks, and many of them have no fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reſide in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and inſolence, and the Turkiſh habit, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Arabs and Copts, who dreſs very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dreſs is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Chriſtians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themſelves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather ſlippers; the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Chriſtians yellow. The dreſs of the women is

tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are ſilk, when they can afford it; and ſuch of them as are not expoſed to the ſun, have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted into the ſociety of men, even at table. When the rich are deſirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, when ſhe accordingly prepares the moſt delicate diſhes, and receives her lord with the greateſt attention and reſpect. The women of the lower claſs uſually remain ſtanding, or ſeated in a corner of the room, while their huſband is at dinner, and preſent him with water to waſh, and help him at the table. The Copts are an acute and ingenious people; they are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exerciſes and diverſions are much the ſame as thoſe made uſe of in Perſia and other Aſiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling ſlight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] To what has been already ſaid concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahomedans are enthuſiaſts, and have among them their *ſantos*, or fellows who pretend to a ſuperior degree of holineſs, and, without any ceremony, intrude into the beſt houſes, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little. The Copts profeſs themſelves to be Chriſtians of the Greek church, but they embrace tranſubſtantiation; in which, and other points, the catholics of Cairo think they approach their faith nearer than the Greeks. They have, however, adopted, from the Mahomedans, the cuſtom of frequent proſtrations during divine ſervice, ablutions, and other ceremonies. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the juriſdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchaſes a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the ancient language of Egypt. This was ſucceeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliphate, when the Arabs diſpoſſeſſed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabeſque, as it is called, is the current language; the Coptic (ſays Mr. Browne) may be conſidered as extinct: numerous and minute reſearches have enabled me to aſcertain this fact. In Upper Egypt, however, they unknowingly retain ſome Coptic words.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is paſt diſpute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet ſcarcely a veſtige of it remains among their deſcendents. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahomedan maſters; but here it is proper to make one obſervation, which is of general uſe. The Caliphs, or Saracens, who ſubdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The firſt, who were the immediate ſucceſſors of Mahomed, made war, from conſcience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took poſſeſſion of Alexandria, which contained the moſt magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuſcripts were applied for ſome months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The ſame fate attended the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliphs of the ſecond race were men of taſte and learning, but of a peculiar character. They bought up all the manuſcripts that ſurvived the general conflagration, relating to aſtronomy, medicine, and ſome uſeleſs parts of philoſophy; but they had no taſte for the Greek arts of architecture, ſculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges,

without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of caliphs, eſpecially thoſe who called themſelves caliphs of Egypt, diſgraced human nature; and the Turks have riveted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they impoſed.

All the learning, therefore, poſſeſſed by the modern Egyptians conſiſts in arithmetical calculation for the diſpatch of buſineſs, the jargon of aſtrology, a few noſtrums in medicine, and ſome knowledge of Arabeſque, or the Mahomedan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with theſe than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often deſcribed. Their antiquity is beyond the reſearches of hiſtory itſelf, and their original uſes are ſtill unknown. The baſes of the largeſt covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if meaſured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and ſeventeen broad, in which is a marble cheſt, but without either cover or contents, ſuppoſed to have been deſigned for the tomb of the founder. In ſhort, the pyramids of Egypt are the moſt ſtupendous, and, to appearance, the moſt uſeleſs ſtructures that ever were raiſed by the hands of men.

The mummy-pits, ſo called from their containing the mummies, or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are ſubterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now loſt. It is ſaid, that ſome of the bodies thus embalmed are perfect and diſtinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curioſity, thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themſelves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, conſiſting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houſes, the intricacies of which occaſion its name. The lake Mœris was dug by the order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches, which ſtill ſubſiſt, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, moſtly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued ſcene of antiquities, of which the oldeſt are the moſt ſtupendous, but the more modern the moſt beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its ſculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the ſhaft of which is one ſtone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedeſtal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the ſhoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curioſities of Egypt, and ſerved the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nouriſhing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practiſed in ſome parts of Europe. The conſtruction of the oven is very curious.

OASES.] At the diſtance of about a hundred miles or more from the Nile, are ſmall fertile ſpots of cultivated land, ſituated like iſlands in the midſt of an ocean of ſand: they are called *Oaſes*, the name by which they were known to the ancient Greeks, and by the Arabs *Elkwah*. Thoſe with which we are now acquainted are in number three; the Great Oaſis, in lat. 26 deg. 30 min. N.; the Leſſer Oaſis, about forty miles to the north of the former; and the Oaſis of Siwa, in lat. 29 deg. 12 min. N. lon. 44 deg. 54 min. Eaſt. The Great Oaſis is ſaid to be twenty-

five leagues in length, and four or five in breadth. That of Siwa was viſited by Mr. Browne: it is about ſix miles long, and four and a half or five wide. A large proportion of this ſpace is filled with date trees; but there are alſo pomegranates, figs, olives, apricots, and plaintains, and the gardens are remarkably flouriſhing. A conſiderable quantity of rice is cultivated here. This has been ſuppoſed to be the Oaſis where the famous temple of Ammon anciently ſtood; but though Mr. Browne found here the ruins of an edifice which appeared to be the work of the ancient Egyptians, as the figures of Iſis and Anubis were conſpicuous among the ſculptures, he diſcovered nothing which could induce him to believe this to be the real Oaſis of Ammon.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES, } Even a ſlight review of theſe would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are ſtill entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as freſh and vivid as when firſt laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coaſt, was once the emporium of the world; and, by means of the Red Sea, furniſhed Europe, and great part of Aſia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It ſtands forty miles weſt from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-weſt of Cairo. It roſe upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-houſe erected on the oppoſite iſland of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deſervedly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the ciſterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at preſent is a very ordinary ſea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithſtanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their moſques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within theſe ruins, preſerve an inexpreſſible air of majeſty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Roſetta, or Raſchid, ſtands twenty-five miles to the north-weſt of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful ſituation, and delightful proſpects which command the fine country, or iſland of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewiſe a place of great trade.

Cairo, Kahira, or, as it is called by the Arabs, Maſr, the preſent capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a diſagreeable reſidence, on account of its peſtilential air, and narrow ſtreets. It cannot, according to Mr. Browne, be eſtimated to contain leſs than 300,000 inhabitants. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old caſtle, the works of which are ſaid to be three miles in circumference. This caſtle is ſaid to have been built by Saladin: at the weſt end are the remains of very noble apartments, ſome of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in moſaic work; but theſe apartments are now only uſed for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually ſent to Mecca. The well, called Joſeph's well, is a curious piece of mechaniſm, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is ſtill revered in Egypt, where they ſhow granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vaſt antiquity; but it is very queſtionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is ſhown in old Cairo; but captain Norden ſuſpects it is a Saracen work,

nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itſelf. On the banks of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles weſt, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Chriſtians of Cairo practiſe a holy cheat, during the Eaſter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead ariſe from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The ſtreets of Cairo are peſtered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing-camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor; the intenſe heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the ſound of drums, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing whenever they hear it.

The other towns of note in Egypt are, Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Peluſium; Seyd, on the weſt bank of the Nile, 200 miles ſouth of Cairo, ſaid to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have viſited it, it is reported to be the moſt capital antique curioſity that is now extant; and Coſſire, on the weſt coaſt of the Red Sea. The general practice of ſtrangers who viſit thoſe places, is to hire a janiſſary, whoſe authority commonly protects them from the inſults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a ſmall city, and gives name to the iſthmus that joins Africa with Aſia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export great quantities of manufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all ſorts, calicoes, yellow wax, ſal ammoniac, ſaffron, ſugar, ſena, and caſſia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, ſpices, calicoes, and other merchandiſes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they ſend them to Europe. Several European ſtates have conſuls reſident in Egypt, but the cuſtoms of the Turkiſh government are managed by Jews. A number of Engliſh veſſels arrive yearly at Alexandria; ſome of which are laden on account of the owners, but moſt of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahomedan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the paſha, and the republican by the Mamalukes or ſangiacks. The paſha is appointed by the grand-ſignor, as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the ariſtocratical part of the government of Egypt, conſiſts of a divan, compoſed of twenty-four ſangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the ſheik-bellet, who is choſen by the divan, and confirmed by the paſha. Every one of theſe ſangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts ſovereign power: the major part of them reſide at Cairo. If the grand-ſignor's paſha acts in oppoſition to the ſenſe of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not ſuffer him to continue in his poſt; and they have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year ſultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

REVENUES.] Theſe are very inconſiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the deſpotiſm of the government. Some ſay that they amount to a million ſterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is ſpent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This conſiſts in the Mamalukes, ſome bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages, to exact tribute, and ſupport authority. The greater part are aſſembled at Cairo. They amount to about 8,000 men, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to ſet the Turks at defiance.

History.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs ſat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, till Cambyſes II. king of Perſia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 years before the birth of Chriſt; and that in the reign of theſe princes, thoſe wonderful ſtructures, the pyramids, were raiſed, which cannot be viewed without aſtoniſhment. Egypt continued a part of the Perſian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquiſhed Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who ſoon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conqueſt of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being ſeized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the ſhare of Ptolemy, by ſome ſuppoſed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Chriſt. His ſucceſſors, who ſometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, even after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and ſiſter of Ptolemy Dionyſius, the laſt king, aſcended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been miſtreſs ſucceſſively to Julius Cæſar and Marc Antony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the ſecond caliph of the ſucceſſors of Mahomed, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, ſaid to conſiſt of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon of the firſt Ptolemy; and the ſame prince cauſed the Old Teſtament to be tranſlated into Greek; which tranſlation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the cruſades, between the year 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Nouredin, whoſe ſon, the famous Saladin, proved ſo formidable to the Chriſtian adventurers, and retook from them Jeruſalem. He inſtituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after choſe their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for ſome time, flouriſhed under thoſe illuſtrious uſurpers, and made a noble ſtand againſt the prevailing power of the Turks, till the time of Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes ſeveral bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its preſent ſtate of ſubjection.

While Selim was ſettling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deſerts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers, perceiving that it would be very difficult to extirpate thoſe marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their poſterity is known all over Europe and Aſia by the name of Gypſies.

An attempt was made a few years ſince, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whoſe father was a prieſt of the Greek church. Ali having turned Mahomedan, and being a man of abilities and addreſs, rendered himſelf extremely popular in Egypt. A falſe accuſation having been made againſt him to the grand-ſignor, his head was ordered to be ſent to Conſtantinople; but, being appriſed of the deſign, he ſeized and put to death the meſſengers who brought this order, and ſoon found means to put himſelf at the head of an army. Being alſo aſſiſted by the dangerous ſituation to which the Turkiſh empire was reduced, in conſequence of the war with Ruſſia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient ſultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he alſo laid claim to Syria, Paleſtine, and

that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient Sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to ſupport theſe pretenſions, and actually ſubdued ſome of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and Syria. At the ſame time that he was engaged in theſe great enterpriſes, he was not leſs attentive to the eſtabliſhing of a regular form of government, and the introducing of order into a country that had been long the ſeat of anarchy and confuſion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpoſe he gave great encouragement to the Chriſtian traders, and took off ſome ſhameful reſtraints and indignities to which they were ſubjected in that barbarous country. He alſo wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greateſt aſſurances of his friendſhip, and that their merchants ſhould meet with the utmoſt protection and ſafety. His great deſign was ſaid to be, to make himſelf maſter of the Red Sea: to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey ſhowed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and beſpoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire. He aſſumed the titles and ſtate of the ancient ſultans of Egypt, and was ably ſupported by Sheik Daher, and ſome other Arabian princes, who warmly eſpouſed his intereſts. He alſo ſucceeded in almoſt all his enterpriſes againſt the neighbouring Aſiatic governors and baſhaws, whom he repeatedly defeated: but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt, by the baſe and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahomed Bey Abudahab; his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was alſo himſelf wounded and taken priſoner; and, dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo. Abudahab afterwards governed Egypt, as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Paleſtine to ſubdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, ſuppoſed to be ſtrangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amneſty; and, truſting to their aſſurances, embraced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on board his ſhip; when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

A civil war now commenced between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes who roſe on his ruins. Of theſe the principal were Murad and Ibrahim, who, having driven their enemies into baniſhment, began to quarrel among themſelves; till, at length, after having alternately expelled each other from Cairo, they agreed to a kind of compromiſe in March 1785.

From this time nothing of importance occurred till the invaſion of Egypt by the French, of which ſome account has already been given in our ſummary of the affairs of France. The French made themſelves maſters of Cairo and the whole of the Delta, forcing Murad Bey and the Mamalukes to take refuge in Upper Egypt; but, after the departure of Buonaparte, general Kleber, who was left at the head of the army, concluded a treaty with the grand vizier, who had been ſent againſt him with a powerful army; by which the French troops were to be permitted to evacuate Egypt without moleſtation. But the Britiſh government having, at the ſame time, ſent orders to the Engliſh admirals in the Mediterranean to prevent the return of the French to Europe, general Kleber, having received notice of theſe orders, immediately attacked the Turks, and defeated them with great ſlaughter. Negociations, it is ſaid, however, have been ſince recommenced for the departure of the

French from Egypt; but, of the iſſue of theſe, no certain accounts have yet been received.

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## THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head are included the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the ſouth, by Tafilet; and on the eaſt, by Segelmeſſa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the ſame in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the eaſt, and Morocco on the ſouth, and is ſurrounded on other parts by the ſea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth by Mount Atlas, and on the weſt by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and eaſt; by the kingdom of Algiers on the weſt; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the ſouth; being 220 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 170 in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the ſouth, by the country of the Beriberies; on the weſt, by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the eaſt by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the ſea-coaſt; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the ſtate or kingdom to which it belongs.

The Barbary ſtates form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exerciſe of its internal polity; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the ſame kingdom, in the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other ſtates, except in the months of July and Auguſt.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] Theſe ſtates, under the Roman empire, were juſtly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a reſidence there was conſidered as the higheſt ſtate of luxury. The produce of their ſoil formed thoſe magazines which furniſhed all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppreſſion and barbarity of their government, yet they are ſtill fertile; not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and, by the report of the Europeans who have lived there for ſome time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleaſures of

life; for the great people find means to evade the ſobriety preſcribed by the Mahomedan law, and make free with excellent wines and ſpirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces ſalt-petre, and great quantities of excellent ſalt; and lead and iron have been found in ſeveral places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the ſtates of Barbary; but their deſerts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monſtrous ſerpents. The Barbary horſes were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now ſaid to be decayed, yet ſome very fine ones are occaſionally imported into England. Dromedaries, aſſes, mules, and kumrahs, a moſt ſerviceable creature, begot by an aſs upon a cow, are their beaſts of burden.

But from the ſervices of the camel they derive the greateſt advantages. This uſeful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilſome journeys acroſs the continent. The camel is, therefore, (ſays Mr. Bruce) emphatically called the *Ship of the Deſert*. He ſeems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to diſcharge. The drieſt thiſtle, and the bareſt thorn, is all the food this uſeful animal requires; and even theſe, to ſave time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without ſtopping, or occaſioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to croſs immenſe deſerts, where no water is found, and countries not even moiſtened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power, at one watering-place, to lay in a ſtore with which he ſupplies himſelf for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large ciſterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleaſure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his ſtomach with the ſame effect as if he then drew it from a ſpring; and with this he travels, patiently and vigorouſly, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poiſonous winds, and glowing with parching and never-cooling ſands.

Their cows are but ſmall, and barren of milk. Their ſheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weaſels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles, are found here. Beſides vermin, ſays Dr. Shaw (ſpeaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehenſions we are under, in ſome parts at leaſt of this country, of being bitten or ſtung by the ſcorpion, the viper, or the venomous ſpider, rarely failed to interrupt our repoſe; a refreſhment ſo very grateful, and ſo highly neceſſary to a weary traveller. Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coaſt; and of the ſmaller birds, the capſa-ſparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the ſweetneſs of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate. The ſeas and bays of Barbary abound with the fineſt and moſt delicious fiſh of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to thoſe of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers ſay, its capital contained 100,000 houſes, whereas at preſent it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horſe and foot, of foreign negroes in his armies.

The city of Algiers is ſaid to contain 100,000 Mahomedans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves; but no eſtimate can be formed as to

the populouſneſs of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hoſpitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from thoſe of the metropolis.

Tunis is the moſt poliſhed republic of all the Barbary ſtates. The capital contains 10,000 families and above 3000 tradeſmen's ſhops; and its ſuburbs conſiſt of 1000 houſes. The Tuniſians are indeed exceptions to the other ſtates of Barbary; for even the moſt civiliſed of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their diſtinctions are well kept up, and proper reſpect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned profeſſions. They cultivate friendſhip with the European ſtates; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are ſaid at preſent to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The women are handſome in their perſons; and though the men are ſun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the ſame pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made uſe of when ſhe is ſaid (2 Kings, chap. ix. verſe 30) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, their behaviour complaiſant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the city.

Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent of all the ſtates on the coaſt; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to between 400,000 or 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much the ſame with thoſe of the Egyptians already deſcribed. The ſubjects of the Barbary ſtates, in general ſubſiſting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight deſperately when they meet with a prize at ſea; they are, notwithſtanding, far inferior to the Engliſh and other European ſtates, both in the conſtruction and management of their veſſels. They are, if we except the Tuniſians, void of all arts and literature. The miſery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's ſervice, are beyond all deſcription; but thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of the country are a hoſpitable inoffenſive people; and indeed it is a general obſervation, that the more diſtant the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are from the ſeats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithſtanding their poverty, they have a livelineſs about them, eſpecially thoſe who are of Arabic deſcent, that gives them an air of contentment; and, having nothing to loſe, they are peaceable among themſelves. The Moors are ſuppoſed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppreſſed by a handful of inſolent domineering Turks, the refuſe of the ſtreets of Conſtantinople.

DRESS.] The dreſs of theſe people is a linen ſhirt, over which they tie a ſilk or cloth veſtment with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet; and perſons of condition ſometimes wear buſkins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their ſlippers when they attend religious duties, or the perſon of their ſovereign. They are fond of ſtriped and fancied ſilks. The dreſs of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a ſort of cawl on their heads inſtead of a turban. The chief

furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and mattreſſes, on which they ſit and lie. In eating, their ſlovenlineſs is diſguſting. They are prohibited gold and ſilver veſſels; and their meat, which they ſwallow by handfuls, is boiled or roaſted to rags.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of theſe ſtates are Mahomedans; but many ſubjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern ſectariſt, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the Caliphs. All of them have much reſpect for idiots; and, in ſome caſes, their protection ſcreens offenders from puniſhment for the moſt notorious crimes. The Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of theſe ſtates are now promiſcuouſly called (becauſe the Saracens firſt entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors), have in general adopted the very worſt parts of the Mahomedan religion, and ſeem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is puniſhed with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the moſt unnatural crimes with impunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profeſſion of their religion.

LANGUAGE.] As the ſtates of Barbary poſſeſs thoſe countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is ſtill ſpoken in ſome of the inland countries, and even by ſome inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the ſea-port towns, and maritime countries, a baſtard kind of Arabic is ſpoken; and ſeafaring people are no ſtrangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spaniſh, &c. that is ſo well known, in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] This article is well worth the ſtudy of an antiquary, but the ſubjects of it are difficult of acceſs. The reader can ſcarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the moſt curious remains of antiquity: but they lie ſcattered amidſt ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatneſs are ſtill to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence of their ancient grandeur and populouſneſs. Theſe point out the old Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itſelf. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are ſtill remaining, particularly at Manuba, a country-houſe of the Bey, four miles from Tunis; but no veſtige of its walls. The ſame is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and ſo over-run is the country with barbariſm, that their very ſites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings, which remain ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Beſides thoſe of claſſical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the moſt ſtupendous magnificence, are likewiſe found in this vaſt tract: theſe were erected under the caliphs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was ſubdued by the Turks, or reduced to its preſent form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curioſities belonging to this country, excepting its ſalt-pits, which in ſome places take up an area of ſix miles. Dr. Shaw mentions ſprings found here, that are ſo hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almoſt in ruins, the

court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the beſt accounts the common people live in a very ſlovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houſes, and 107 moſques. The public baths are large, and handſomely paved with marble. The proſpect of the country and ſea from Algiers is very beautiful, the city being built on the declivity of a mountain; but, though for ſeveral ages it has braved ſome of the greateſt powers in Chriſtendom, it could make but a faint defence againſt a regular ſiege; and it is ſaid that three Engliſh fifty-gun ſhips might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. The Spaniards, however, attacked it, in 1775, by land and by ſea, but were repulſed with great loſs, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horſe, and 47 king's ſhips, of different rates, and 346 tranſports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy the city and galleys; but after ſpending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or deſtruction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a ſmall iſland where there is a caſtle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the fineſt of all theſe ſtates, contains the remains of many noble cities, ſome of them ſtill in good condition. Tunis, built near the original ſite of Carthage, has a wall and fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houſes are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods: but, like Algiers, it is diſtreſſed for want of freſh water; that of rain, preſerved in ciſterns, is chiefly uſed by the inhabitants.

The city of Tripoli conſiſts of an old and new town, the latter being the moſt flouriſhing; but great inconveniences attend its ſituation, particularly the want of ſweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coaſt, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of conſiderable trade, and the object of many bloody diſputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Conſtantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the ſtrongeſt cities of Numidia, being inacceſſible on all ſides, excepting the ſouth-weſt.

Beſides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie ſcattered up and down this immenſe tract of country. The city of Fez, at preſent the capital of the kingdom ſo called, is ſaid to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, beſides merchants and foreigners. Its moſques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond deſcription, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is eſteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, ſituated about two miles within the ſtraits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, conſort to Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the Engliſh what Gibraltar is now; and it muſt have been a moſt noble acquiſition, had not the miſunderſtandings between the king and his parliament occaſioned him to blow up its fortifications and demoliſh its harbour; ſo that, from being one of the fineſt cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fiſhing-town. Ceuta, upon the ſame ſtrait, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, beſieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houſes: but the

inhabitants are ſaid to be rich, and tolerably civiliſed in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Geſula, form no part of the ſtates of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their ſovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious. Zaara is a deſert country, thinly peopled, and almoſt deſtitute both of water and proviſions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower ſubjects of theſe ſtates know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be ſupplied with neceſſary utenſils and manufactures; ſo that their exports conſiſt chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and ſofter than thoſe of Turkey, though not ſo good in other reſpects. As they leave almoſt all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Chriſtians ſettled among them, the latter have eſtabliſhed ſilk and linen works, which ſupply the higher ranks of their own ſubjects. They have no ſhips, that, properly ſpeaking, are employed in commerce; ſo that the French and Engliſh carry on the greateſt part of their trade. Their exports, beſides thoſe already mentioned, conſiſt in elephants' teeth, oſtrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raiſins, olives, almonds, gum arabic and ſandarach. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewiſe ſaid to carry on a conſiderable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and ſome inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vaſt numbers of negroes, who ſerve in their armies, and are ſlaves in their houſes and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furniſh them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the Engliſh in the ports of Morocco, are but half of thoſe paid by other Europeans. It is a general obſervation, that no nation is fond of trading with theſe ſtates, not only on account of their capricious deſpotiſm, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are ſeldom puniſhed.

It has been often thought ſurpriſing, that the Chriſtian powers ſhould ſuffer their marine to be inſulted by theſe barbarians, who take the ſhips of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a ſubſidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwiſe than by ſuppoſing, firſt, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be the lord paramount; ſecondly, that no Chriſtian power would be fond of ſeeing Algiers, and the reſt of that coaſt, in poſſeſſion of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would inſtantly carry their effects into the deſerts and mountains, ſo that the benefit reſulting from the conqueſt muſt be tedious and precarious.—Indeed, expeditions againſt Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unſucceſsful, as before noticed.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be ſaid to exiſt. The emperors have for ſome ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters: nor is their brutality more incredible than the ſubmiſſion with which their ſubjects bear it. In the abſence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is ſeldom that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some veſtiges,

however, of the caliphate government ſtill continue; for in places where no military officer reſides, the mufti or high-prieſt is the fountain of all juſtice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our juſtices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately ſubject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the Grand-ſignor to be his ſuperior, and he pays him a diſtant allegiance as the chief repreſentative of Mahomed. What has been ſaid of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli have each of them a Turkiſh paſha or dey, who governs in the name of the Grand-ſignor, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious ſubjects to his authority. He cannot even be ſaid to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every ſoldier in the army has a vote in chooſing the ſucceeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodſhed, yet it is no ſooner fixed than he is cheerfully recogniſed and obeyed. It is true, he muſt be confirmed by the Porte; but that is ſeldom refuſed, as the divan is no ſtranger to the diſpoſitions of the people. The power of the dey is deſpotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000l. a year, without greatly oppreſſing his ſubjects, who are very tenacious of their property. Theſe deys pay ſlight annual tributes to the Porte. When the Grand-ſignor is at war with a Chriſtian power, he requires their aſſiſtance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council which conſiſts of thirty paſhas. Theſe paſhas ſeldom fail of forming parties amongſt the ſoldiers, againſt the reigning dey, whom they make no ſcruple of aſſaſſinating, even in council; and the ſtrongeſt candidate then fills the place. Sometimes he is depoſed; ſometimes, though but very ſeldom, he reſigns his authority to ſave his life, and it is ſeldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unſucceſsful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, ſeldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] Thoſe of Algiers have been already mentioned, but they are now ſaid to be exceeded by thoſe of Tunis. They conſiſt of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Chriſtians, a ſmall capitation tax, and the cuſtoms paid by the Engliſh, French, and other nations, who are ſuffered to trade with thoſe ſtates. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, becauſe none of his ſubjects can be ſaid to poſſeſs any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ranſom of Chriſtian ſlaves are his perquiſites. He ſometimes ſhares in the veſſels of the other ſtates, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahomedan ſubjects, and ſix crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewiſe conſiderable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, eſpecially the ſlave-trade towards the ſouth. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a year. A detachment of the army of theſe ſtates is annually ſent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at ſea ſometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND. By the beſt accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring into the field 100,000 men; but the ſtrength of his army conſiſts of cavalry

mounted by his negro ſlaves. Thoſe wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other ſtate but ſervitude, and no other maſter but that king, and prove the firmeſt ſupport of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco conſiſted only of three ſmall ſhips, which lay at Sallee, and, being full of men, ſometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, conſiſting of Turks and cologlies, or the ſons of ſoldiers. Part of them ſerve as marines on board their veſſels. About 1000 of them do garriſon duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Beſides theſe, the dey can bring 2000 Mooriſh horſe into the field; but, as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little truſted. Thoſe troops are under excellent diſcipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary ſtates maintain a force in proportion to their abilities; ſo that a few years ago they refuſed to ſend any tribute to the Turkiſh emperor, who ſeems to be ſatisfied with the ſhadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and more extenſive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that ſtate flouriſhed, the preſent inhabitants have ſcarcely any merchant ſhips belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increaſed ſince the laſt attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and ſmall, and ſome years ago did not exceed ſix ſhips, from thirty-ſix to fifty guns. The admiral's ſhip belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but ſubject to military law. With ſuch a contemptible fleet, theſe infidels not only haraſs the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of preſents.

HISTORY.] Under the Roman emperors, the ſtates of Barbary formed the faireſt jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the ſeventh century that, after theſe ſtates had been by turns in poſſeſſion of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the caliphs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became maſters of almoſt all Spain, from whence their poſterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles ſettled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coaſt. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who preſſed them ſo hard, that they called to their aſſiſtance the two famous brothers Barbaroſſa, who were admirals of the Turkiſh fleet, and who, after breaking the Spaniſh yoke, impoſed upon the inhabitants of all thoſe ſtates (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unſucceſsful; and, as obſerved, the inhabitants have in fact ſhaken off the Turkiſh yoke likewiſe.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the ſucceſſors of thoſe ſovereigns of that country who were called xeriffs, and whoſe powers reſembled that of the caliphate of the Saracens. They have been, in general, a ſet of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them ſome able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almoſt a continual ſtate of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Chriſtian princes ever ſince: nor does the crown of Great Britain ſometimes diſdain, as in the year 1769, to purchaſe their friendſhip with preſents.

# ABYSSINIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 920 | between | 6 and 20 North latitude. | 378,000 |
| Breadth 900 | | 26 and 44 East longitude. | |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the North by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the East partly by the Red Sea, and partly by Duncala; on the Weſt, by Gorham; and on the South, by the kingdom of Gingiro, and Alaba.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the following account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz.

1. Maſuah; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder; 5. Ambara; 6. Walaka; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Maiſha; 10. Dembea; 11. Kuara; 12. Nara.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The rainy ſeaſon continues for ſix months of the year, from April to September, which is ſucceeded, without interval, by a cloudleſs ſky and vertical ſun; and cold nights, which as immediately follow theſe ſcorching days. The earth, notwithſtanding the heat of theſe days, is yet perpetually cold, ſo as to feel diſagreeably to the ſoles of the feet; partly owing to the ſix months' rain, when no ſun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

QUADRUPEDS.] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyſſinia. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance preſent themſelves every where, differing in ſize, ſome having horns of various dimenſions, ſome without horns at all; differing alſo in the colour and length of their hair.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel or antelope kind; the bohur, ſaſſa, ſeeho, and madequa, and many others. The hyæna is ſtill more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of theſe the moſt numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal; this is preciſely the ſame in all reſpects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, ſmaller and ſmoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing elſe, is met frequently in ſwamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or ſaadh, which is the panther, ſeen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyſſinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the aſs kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; theſe are the inhabitants of Fazuelo and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyæna for its mercileſs ferocity. They were a plague, ſays our author, ſpeaking of theſe animals, in Abyſſinia, in every ſituation, both in the city and the field, and I think ſurpaſſed the ſheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark to the dawn of day, ſeeking the different pieces of ſlaughtered carcaſes which this cruel and unclean people expoſe in the ſtreets without burial.

It is a conſtant obſervation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of man, till by ſome accident they have been brought to

engage, and the beaſt has prevailed againſt him; then that feeling of ſuperiority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preſervation, ſeems to forſake him. The lion, having once taſted human blood, relinquiſhes the purſuit after the flock. He repairs to ſome highway or frequented path, and has been known, in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for ſeveral weeks; and in this he perſiſts till hunters or ſoldiers are ſent out to deſtroy him.

Birds.] The number of birds in Abyſſinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally ſtored with them: the firſt kind are the carnivorous birds. Many ſpecies of the eagle and hawk, many more ſtill of the vulture kind, as it were, over-ſtock all parts of the country. That ſpecies of glede called haddaya, ſo frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the ſun, after the tropical rains. The niſſar, or golden eagle, is not only the largeſt of the eagle kind, but one of the largeſt birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle rachamah, erkoom, moroc, ſheregrig, and waalia, are particularly deſcribed by the hiſtorian of Abyſſinia, to whoſe celebrated work we refer the reader who is deſirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyſſinia, eſpecially of the web-footed kind. Vaſt variety of ſtorks cover the plains in May, when the rains become conſtant. All the deep and graſſy bogs have ſnipes in them; and there are ſwallows of many kinds unknown in Europe; thoſe that are common in Europe appear in paſſage at the very ſeaſon when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyſſinia; but thoſe are of an immenſe ſize and beauty. There are no geeſe, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Gooſe, Gooſe of the Nile, or Gooſe of the Cape, common in all the South of Africa: theſe build their neſts upon trees, and, when not in water, generally ſit upon them.

Insects.] From the claſs of inſects, we ſhall ſelect the moſt remarkable, viz. the tſaltſalya, or fly, which is an inſect that furniſhes a ſtriking proof how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we conſider its ſmall ſize, its weakneſs, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or inſignificant. Yet paſſing from theſe to his hiſtory, and to the account of his powers, we muſt confeſs the very great injuſtice we do him from want of conſideration. We are obliged, with the greateſt ſurpriſe, to acknowledge, that thoſe huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and tiger, inhabiting the ſame woods, are ſtill vaſtly his inferiors, and that the appearance of this ſmall inſect, nay, his very ſound, though he is not ſeen, occaſions more trepidation, movement, and diſorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of theſe monſtrous animals collected together, though their number was in a ten-fold proportion greater than it really is.

This inſect has not been deſcribed by any naturaliſt. It is in ſize very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As ſoon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forſake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and haſten down to the ſands of Atbara; and there they remain while the rains laſt, this cruel enemy never daring to purſue them farther. Though the ſize of the camel is immenſe, his ſtrength vaſt, and his body covered with a thick ſkin, defended with ſtrong hair, yet ſtill he is not capable to ſuſtain the violent punctures the fly makes with his

pointed proboſcis. He muſt loſe no time in removing to the ſands of Atbara; for, when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large boſſes, which ſwell, break, and putrify, to the certain deſtruction of the creature.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is alſo found in Abyſſinia. *Baleſſar*, *Balm*, or *Balſam*, is alſo a native of Abyſſinia. The great value ſet upon this drug in the Eaſt, remounts to very early ages. We know from Scripture, the oldeſt hiſtory extant, as well as the moſt infallible, that the Iſhmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants, trafficking with the India commodities, into Egypt, brought with them balm as a part of the cargo.—The *Enſete* is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar, but it moſtly abounds in that part of Maitſha and Goutto weſt of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almoſt excluſive of every thing elſe, the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. When ſoft, like the turnep well-boiled, if eaten with milk or butter, it is the beſt of food, wholeſome, nouriſhing, and eaſily digeſted. The *Teff* is a grain commonly ſown all over Abyſſinia, where it ſeems to thrive equally on all ſorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly uſed throughout this country. The Abyſſinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and ſome of it of an excellent quality. They likewiſe make as fine wheat-bread as any in the world, both for colour and taſte; but the uſe of wheat-bread is chiefly confined to people of the firſt rank. The acacia tree is very common in Abyſſinia, as are ſeveral other curious productions of the vegetable world.

LAKES.] The lake of Tzana (not to mention thoſe of Gooderoo, and Court Ohha) is by much the largeſt expanſe of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greateſt breadth is thirty-five miles, and its extent in length is forty-nine. The Nile, by a current always viſible, croſſes the end of it. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake ſhrinks greatly in ſize; but after that all thoſe rivers are full which are on every ſide of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre; it then ſwells, and extends itſelf into the plain country, and has, of courſe, a much larger ſurface.

There are about eleven inhabited iſlands in the lake. All theſe iſlands were formerly uſed as priſons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat on account of ſome diſguſt or great misfortune, or as places of ſecurity to depoſit their valuable effects during troubleſome times.

CATARACTS OF THE NILE.] Omiting thoſe of inferior note, we ſhall here give the reader ſome account of the great cataract of Alata, which was the moſt magnificent ſight that Mr. Bruce ever beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The miſſionaries ſay the fall is about ſixteen ells or fifty feet. The meaſuring is, indeed, very difficult; but by the poſition of long ſticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock, from the water's edge, Mr. Bruce thinks he may venture to ſay that it is nearer forty feet than any other meaſure. The river had been conſiderably increaſed by rains, and fell in one ſheet of water, without any interval, above half an Engliſh mile in breadth, with a force and a noiſe that was truly terrible, and which ſtunned, and made him for a time perfectly dizzy. A thick fume or haze covered the fall all round, and hung over the courſe of the ſtream, both above and below, marking its track, though the water is not ſeen. The river, though ſwelled with rain, preſerved its natural clearneſs, and fell, as far as he could diſcern, into a deep pool, or baſon, in the ſolid rock,

which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice; the ſtream, when it fell, ſeeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its courſe, raiſing a wave, or violent ebullition, by chafing againſt each other.

Sources of the Nile.] The Agows of Damot pay divine honours to the Nile; they worſhip the river, and thouſands of cattle have been offered, and ſtill are offered, to the ſpirit ſuppoſed to reſide at the ſources. The village of Geeſh, though not farther diſtant than 600 yards, is not in ſight of the ſources of the Nile. In the middle of a marſh near the bottom of the mountain of Geeſh, ariſes a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the ſurface of the marſh itſelf, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is ſomething ſhort of twelve feet; it is ſurrounded by a ſhallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eaſtward; it is firmly built with ſod or earthen turf, brought from the ſides, and conſtantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar is a hole, obviouſly made, or at leaſt enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of graſs or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly clear and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind diſcernible upon its ſurface. This mouth or opening of the ſource is ſome parts of an inch leſs than three feet in diameter, and the water ſtood about two inches from the lip or brim. The ſpring is about ſix feet ſix inches deep.

Ten feet diſtant from the firſt of theſe ſprings, is the ſacred fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep. And about twenty feet diſtant from the firſt, is the third ſource, its mouth being ſomething more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep. With a braſs quadrant of three feet radius, he found the exact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile to be 10° 59′ 25″, though the Jeſuits have ſuppoſed it 12° N. by a random gueſs. The longitude he aſcertained to be 36° 55′ 30″ Eaſt of the meridian of Greenwich*.

Causes of the inundations of the Nile.] The ſun being nearly ſtationary for ſome days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes ſo much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, ruſh in upon it from the Atlantic on the weſt, and from the Indian Ocean on the eaſt. Having thus gathered ſuch a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, the ſun now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progreſs northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, ſeemed to have extended its power to the atmoſphere of Gondar, when, for the firſt time, there appeared in the ſky, white, dappled, thin clouds, the ſun being then diſtant 34° from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark ſpeck having been ſeen for ſeveral months before. Advancing to the line with increaſed velocity, and deſcribing larger ſpirals, the ſun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar the 1ſt of March, being then diſtant 5° from the zenith; theſe are greedily abſorbed by the thirſty ſoil; and this ſeems to be the far-

* There is another branch of the Nile, called the *Bahr el abiad*, or White River; the ſources of which, according to Mr. Browne, lie about ten day's journey ſouth of the country of Dar-Fûr. The place is called Donga, and is the reſidence of a chief or king of an idolatrous nation. The country there is very mountainous, and in the ſpot where the river riſes are ſaid to be forty diſtinct hills: theſe are called Kumri. From them a great number of ſprings iſſue, which, uniting into one great channel, form the Bahr el abiad. The people are quite naked, black, and idolaters. The place is ſaid to be twenty days removed from the confines of Bornou. All the road thither is mountainous. It lies in about 7 deg. north lat. and 25 deg. eaſt lon.

theſt extent of the ſun's influence capable of cauſing rain, which then only falls in large drops, and laſts but a few minutes: the rainy ſeaſon, however, begins moſt ſeriouſly upon its arrival at the zenith of every place, and theſe rains continue conſtant and increaſing after he has paſſed it, in his progreſs north ward.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Laſta, are firſt diſcoloured, and then beginning to ſwell, join the Nile, in the ſeveral parts of its courſe neareſt them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination, forces itſelf through the ſtagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of ſtreams pour themſelves from Gojam, Damot, Maitſha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intenſe evaporation, but now begins to fill inſenſibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the ſun having now paſſed all Abyſſinia, the rivers there are all full; and then is the time of the greateſt rains in Abyſſinia, while it is for ſome days, as it were, ſtationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the ſun has paſſed the line, he begins the rainy ſeaſon to the ſouthward, ſtill as he approaches the zenith of each place: but the ſituation and neceſſities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains runs from above 6° ſouth all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and interſects the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, nearly in the ſame manner that the river Nile does the northern. A ſtrong wind from the ſouth, ſtopping the progreſs of the condenſed vapours, daſhes them againſt the cold ſummits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers which eſcape in the direction either eaſt or weſt as the level preſents itſelf. If this is towards the weſt, they fall down the ſides of the mountains, into the Atlantic, and if on the eaſt, into the Indian Ocean.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] GONDAR, the metropolis of Abyſſinia, is ſituated upon a hill of conſiderable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It conſiſts of about ten thouſand families in time of peace; the houſes are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the conſtruction within the tropical rains. On the weſt of the town is the king's houſe, formerly a ſtructure of conſiderable conſequence. It was a ſquare building flanked with ſquare towers. It was formerly four ſtories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country ſouthward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this houſe is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is ſtill ample lodging in the two loweſt floors of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are ſurrounded by a ſubſtantial ſtone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer-wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the ſtreet. There appear to have been never any embraſures for cannon, and the four ſides of the walls are above an Engliſh mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of obſervations of the ſun and ſtars made by day and night, in the courſe of three years, with an aſtronomical quadrant of three feet radius, and two excellent teleſcopes, and by a mean of all their ſmall differences, is in N. lat. 12° 34′ 30″: and by many obſervations of the ſatellites of Jupiter, eſpecially the firſt, both in their immerſions and emerſions

during that period, its longitude was found to be 37° 33′ 0″ eaſt from the meridian of Greenwich.

DIXAN is the firſt town in Abyſſinia, on the ſide of Taranta. Dixan is built on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a ſugar-loaf; a deep valley ſurrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds ſpirally up the hill till it ends among the houſes. It is true of Dixan, as of moſt frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries reſort thither. The town conſiſts of Moors and Chriſtians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of theſe ſects is a very extraordinary one, that of ſelling children. The Chriſtians bring ſuch as they have ſtolen in Abyſſinia to Dixan as to a ſure depoſit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Maſuah, whence they are ſent over to Arabia or India. The prieſts of the province of Tigré, eſpecially thoſe near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. 14° 57′ 55″ north, and long. 40° 7′ 30″ eaſt of the meridian of Greenwich.

AXUM is ſuppoſed to have been once the capital of Abyſſinia, and its ruins are now very extenſive; but, like the cities of ancient times, conſiſt altogether of public buildings. In one ſquare, which ſeems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obeliſks, none of which have any hiereglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is ſtanding, there is a *patera*, exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taſte. Axum is watered by a ſmall ſtream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley where ſtand the rows of obeliſks. The ſpring is received into a magnificent baſon 150 feet ſquare, and thence it is carried at pleaſure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates, neither are theſe very excellent. The latitude of this town is 14° 6′ 36″ north.

MASUAH. The houſes of this town, which is ſituated upon an iſland bearing the ſame name, on the Abyſſinian ſhore of the Red Sea, are in general built of poles and bent graſs, as in the towns of Arabia; but beſides theſe, there are about twenty of ſtone, ſix or eight of which are two ſtories each. N. lat. 15° 35′ 5″. E. long. 39° 36′ 30″.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] There is a conſiderable deal of trade carried on at Maſuah, narrow and confined as the iſland is, and violent and unjuſt as is the government. But it is all done in a ſlovenly manner, and for articles where a ſmall capital is inveſted. Property here is too precarious to riſk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every tranſaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country, depend for the neceſſaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of ſuch articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the ſources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where ſixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. Theſe Agows come conſtantly in ſucceſſion, a thouſand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with theſe commodities to the capital.

It may naturally occur, that, in a long carriage, ſuch as that of a hundred miles in ſuch a climate, butter muſt melt, and be in a ſtate of fuſion, conſequently very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc-moco, yellow in colour, and in ſhape nearly reſembling a carrot; this they bruiſe and mix with their butter, and a very ſmall quantity preſerves it freſh for a conſiderable time.

RELIGION.] Mr. Bruce informs us, from the Annals of Abyſſinia, that in the time of Solomon all this country was converted to Judaiſm,

and the government of the church and ſtate modelled according to what was then in uſe at Jeruſalem.

Some eccleſiaſtical writers, rather from attachment to particular ſyſtems, than from any conviction that the opinion they eſpouſe is truth, would perſuade us, that the converſion of Abyſſinia to Chriſtianity happened in the days of the apoſtles; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apoſtle of the Abyſſinians) in the year of Chriſt 333, according to our account.

Their firſt biſhop, Frumentius being ordained about the year 333, and inſtructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanaſius, then ſitting in the chair of St. Mark; it follows that the true religion of the Abyſſinians, which they received on their converſion to Chriſtianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy ſacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruiſed with the huſk together as it grows, ſo that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat ſpoon. They obſerve alſo circumciſion.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the hiſtory of ſo barbarous and uncivilized a people will, we preſume, afford but ſmall amuſement to our readers, whatever ſatisfaction they may have received from ſurveying the manners and cuſtoms of the people, and the natural hiſtory of the country; we ſhall therefore make no farther apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyſſinia, but refer thoſe who have any deſire of information upon this ſubject, to the ſecond volume of the Travels of our adventurous author, where they will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

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# INTERIOR COUNTRIES OF AFRICA;

## FEZZAN, BORNOU, CASHNA, TOMBUCTOO, HOUSSA, DAR-FUR, &c.

IT having been long a ſubject of complaint that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the *interior diſtricts* of Africa, a number of learned and opulent individuals formed themſelves into a ſociety for the purpoſe of exploring them. The aſſociation was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the ſame day a committee of its members, viz. *Lord Rawdon, the biſhop of Llandaff, Sir Joſeph Banks, Mr. Beauſoy, and Mr. Stuart,* were inveſted with the direction of its funds, the management of the correſpondence, and the choice of the perſons to whom the geographical miſſion was to be aſſigned. Perſuaded of the importance of the object which the aſſociation had in view, their committee loſt no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and, appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected reſearches, they were choſen. One was *Mr. Ledyard*; the other a *Mr. Lucas.*

Such a perſon as Mr. Ledyard was formed by nature for the object in contemplation: and, were we unacquainted with the ſequel, we ſhould congratulate the Society on being ſo fortunate as to find ſuch a man for

one of their miſſionaries: but the reader will ſoon be acquainted with the melancholy circumſtance to which we allude.

'From two ſuch geographical miſſionaries (obſerves a very reſpectable literary journaliſt*) much information was no doubt expected; and though the views of the ſociety were not yet fully anſwered, the communications which it has received are of a nature which will excite, though not fully gratify, the curioſity of geographers.

'Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own deſire, the difficult and perilous taſk of traverſing from eaſt to weſt, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the wideſt part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of Auguſt.

'Hence he tranſmitted ſuch accounts to his employers as manifeſt him to have been a traveller who obſerved, reflected, and compared; and ſuch was the information which he collected here from the travelling ſlave-merchants, and from others, reſpecting the interior diſtricts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Sennaar (600 miles to the ſouth of Cairo): but death, attributed to various cauſes, arreſted him at the commencement of his reſearches, and diſappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

'Endowed with a ſoul for diſcovery, and formed by nature for achievements of hardihood and peril, the death of Mr. Ledyard muſt be conſidered as a public misfortune.

'With a mixture of regret and diſappointment, we turn from poor Ledyard, to notice Mr. Lucas's communications, which occupy the greateſt part of the volume publiſhed by the aſſociation. He embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with inſtructions to proceed over the Deſert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to tranſmit by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford reſpecting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coaſt of Guinea.

'Inſtructions to undertake great enterpriſes are more eaſily given than executed. So Mr. Lucas found; and ſo the reader, to his diſappointment, will find likewiſe. Only a part of the plan was this geographical miſſionary able to carry into execution. He ſets out, indeed, mounted on a handſome mule, preſented to him by the bey, the baſhaw's eldeſt ſon, in company with ſhereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan; reſolved, we will ſuppoſe, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia: but his peregrinations, which began Feb. 1, 1798, terminated at Meſurata on Feb. 7.

'Deprived of viſiting Fezzan, and the other inland diſtricts of Africa, Mr. Lucas ſolicits the information of his fellow travellers, and tranſmits to the ſociety the reſult of his conferences. A memoir compiled in this way, from the reports of a ſhereef Imhammed, will not be deemed very ſatisfactory; and yet it certainly merits conſideration, as it is in part corroborated by other teſtimonies.'

Having no other ſources of information, however, we muſt, for the preſent, content ourſelves with theſe communications. From the various conferences of Mr. Lucas with the ſhereef Imhammed, the following narrative is compoſed:

'It deſcribes the kingdom of Fezzan to be a ſmall circular domain,

* Monthly Review, new Series, vol. ii. p. 63.

placed in a vaſt wilderneſs, as an iſland in the midſt of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, diſtant, ſouth from Meſurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be ſeen ſome venerable remains of ancient magnificence, ſome diſtricts of remarkable fertility, and numerous ſmoking lakes, producing a ſpecies of foſſil alkali called *trona*. Agriculture and paſturage are the principal occupations of the Fezzanners; they do not appear to have any coin; their medium of commerce is gold-duſt; their houſes, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a ſufficient protection. Their dreſs reſembles that of the Moors of Barbary: but, during the heats of ſummer, which are intenſe, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the ſun. To theſe, many particulars are added of their perſons, diſeaſes, and mode of cure; of their religion, government, taxes, animal and vegetable productions. Their ſovereign, who is a tributary of the baſhaw of Tripoli, adminiſters impartial juſtice.

'The narrative proceeds to ſtate, that ſouth-eaſt of Mourzook, at the diſtance of 150 miles, is a ſandy deſert, 200 miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibeſti, inhabited by ferocious ſavages, tributary to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are ſaid to be fertiliſed by innumerable ſprings, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibeſtins to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel loads of ſenna.

'This kingdom is inconſiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Caſhna, or Kaſſina, which lie ſouth of Fezzan, occupying that vaſt region which ſpreads itſelf from the river of the Antelopes for 1200 miles weſtward, and includes a great part of the Niger's courſe. Caſhna, or Kaſſina, we are informed, contains a thouſand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is ſtill more conſiderable, thirty languages are ſaid to be ſpoken. The latter is repreſented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being ſituated within a day's journey of the river *Wod-el-Gazel*, which is loſt in the ſandy waſtes of the vaſt deſert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdſmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whoſe wealth conſiſts in their cattle*. (Bornou, or Bernoa, is a word ſignifying the land of Noah; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various ſorts of grain, the uſe of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only inſtrument of huſbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two ſpecies of melons, the water and the muſk, are produced in large abundance; but one of the moſt valuable of its vegetables is a tree called kedeyna, which in form and height reſembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the ſhell are both in great eſtimation, the firſt as a fruit, the laſt on account of the oil which it furniſhes when bruiſed, and which ſupplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a ſubſtitute for the oil of olives, p. 139. Bees, it is added, are ſo numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we muſt refer to the work. The population is deſcribed by the expreſſion, *a countleſs multitude*. We ſhall paſs over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan; of their

* Horſes and horned cattle, goats, ſheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

government, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceased sovereign: but the account of the present sultan, his wives, and his children (p. 227) is too curious not to be exhibited.

'The present sultan, whose name is Ali, is a man of an unostentatious, plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the common blue shirt of cotton or silk, and the silk or muslin turban, which form the usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his seraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are said to be 500 in number, and he himself is described as the reputed father of 350 children, of whom 300 are males; a disproportion which naturally suggests the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candidate for the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a stranger.

'We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not possessed by them.

'South-east from Bornou, lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; and, beyond this kingdom, are said to be several tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmeese; and when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is farther said, that if any of them, exhausted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horsemen seizes on the oldest, and, cutting off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

'We are not much disposed to give credit to this relation. That the negroes, who are sold for slaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they should be driven along with the mangled limbs of their associates, utterly exceeds belief.

'The empire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou.

'After perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of these regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince: but that they are divided into regular and civilised states, may be a question. *A thousand towns and villages* in one empire, and *thirty different languages* spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the shereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at least, to retail loose reports. That they should be acquainted with, yet not possess fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fish that abound in its waters, but little accords with the history of their commerce, and of their progress in manufactures.'

Under the patronage of the same society for making discoveries in the interior countries of Africa, Mr. Mungo Park has since performed a journey eastward, from the mouth of the Gambia to Silla, on the river Niger, above a thousand miles from the Atlantic; and, to use the words of major Rennell, brought to our knowledge more important facts respecting the geography of western Africa, both moral and physical, than have been collected by any former traveller.

Mr. Park set out from Pisania (a British factory on the banks of the Gambia) on the 2d of December 1795, and took his route through the kingdoms of Woolli, Bondou, Kajaaga, Kasson, Kaarta, and Lu-

damar, to Bambarra. The country of Woolli, he tells us, every where riſes into gentle acclivities, which are generally covered with extenſive woods, and the towns are ſituated in the intermediate valleys; the chief productions are cotton, tobacco, and different kinds of corn. Medina, the capital of this kingdom, is a place of conſiderable extent, and may contain from eight hundred to a thouſand houſes. The country of Bondou, like that of Woolli, is very generally covered with woods; but in native fertility, in the opinion of our traveller, is not ſurpaſſed by any part of Africa. The name of the capital of this country is Fatteconda. The inhabitants are of the tribe of the Foulahs, who are in general of a tawny complexion, with ſmall features, and ſoft ſilky hair. The Foulahs of Bondou are naturally of a mild and gentle diſpoſition; but they evidently conſider all the negro natives as their inferiors; and, when talking of different nations, always rank themſelves among the white people. In Kayaaga, the next kingdom, the air and climate are more pure and ſalubrious than at any of the ſettlements towards the coaſt; the face of the country is every where interſperſed with a pleaſing variety of hills and valleys; and the windings of the Senegal river, which deſcends from the rocky hills of the interior, make the ſcenery on its banks very picturesque and beautiful. The inhabitants are called Serawoollies, or, as the French write it, Seracolets. Their complexion is a jet black; their government is a deſpotic monarchy; and they are habitually a trading people. In the kingdom of Kaſſon, of which Kooniakarry is the capital, from the top of a high hill Mr. Park had an enchanting proſpect of the country. The number of towns and villages, and the extenſive cultivation around them, ſurpaſſed every thing he had yet ſeen in Africa. A groſs calculation may be formed of the number of inhabitants in this delightful plain, from the fact, that the king of Kaſſon can raiſe four thouſand fighting men by the ſound of his war-drum. At Kemmoo, the capital of Kaarta, Mr. Park had an audience of the king, who adviſed him to return to Kaſſon; telling him it was not in his power at preſent to afford him much aſſiſtance, for that all kind of communication between Kaarta and Bambarra had been interrupted for ſome time paſt, in conſequence of a war between the two kingdoms. Our traveller, however, reſolved to continue his journey, and proceeded to Jarra, a town in the kingdom of Ludamar, whence he ſent preſents to Ali, the ſovereign, then encamped at Benowm, requeſting permiſſion to paſs through his territories. Several days afterwards, one of Ali's ſlaves arrived with inſtructions, as he pretended, to conduct him as far as Goomba, on the farther frontier; but, before he arrived there, he was ſeized by a party of Moors, who conveyed him to Ali at Benowm, who detained him a priſoner more than three months. He, however, at length found means to make his eſcape, in the confuſion which enſued, in conſequence of the ſucceſs of the army of the king of Kaarta, who had invaded the country. His joy at his eſcape, he tells us, it is impoſſible to deſcribe; but he ſoon found that his real ſituation was diſtreſsful in the extreme. He was in the midſt of a barren wilderneſs; and, after travelling a long time, expoſed to the burning heat of the ſun, reflected with double violence from the hot ſand, his ſuffering from thirſt became ſo intolerable, that he fainted on the ſand, and expected the immediate approach of death. Nature, however, at length reſumed its functions; and, on recovering his ſenſes, he found the ſun juſt ſinking behind the trees, and the evening become ſomewhat cool. It ſoon after rained plentifully for more than an hour, and he quenched his thirſt by wringing and ſucking his clothes, by

which he was ſufficiently relieved to enable him to purſue his journey; and, after travelling ſeveral days more, he at length came in ſight of one of the principal objects pointed out for his reſearch,—the river Niger. "I ſaw," ſays he, "with infinite pleaſure, the great object of my miſſion—the long-ſought-for majeſtic Niger, glittering to the morning ſun, as broad as the Thames at Weſtminſter, and flowing ſlowly *to the eaſtward*. I haſtened to the brink, and, having drank of the water, lifted up my fervent thanks in prayer to the Great Ruler of all things, for having thus far crowned my endeavours with ſucceſs."

He had now reached Sego, the capital of Bambarra, which he thus deſcribes:—"Sego, properly ſpeaking, conſiſts of four diſtinct towns; two on the northern bank of the Niger, and two on the ſouthern. They are all ſurrounded with high mud walls: the houſes are built of clay, of a ſquare form, with flat roofs; ſome of them have two ſtories, and many of them are white-waſhed. Beſides theſe buildings, Mooriſh moſques are ſeen in every quarter; and the ſtreets, though narrow, are broad enough for every uſeful purpoſe, in a country where wheel-carriages are entirely unknown. From the beſt inquiries I could make, I have reaſon to believe that Sego contains, altogether, about thirty thouſand inhabitants. The view of this extenſive city, the numerous canoes upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated ſtate of the ſurrounding country, formed altogether a proſpect of civilization and magnificence which I little expected to find in the boſom of Africa.—Sego is ſituate, as nearly as can be aſcertained, in north lat. 14. deg. 10 min: weſt lon. 2 deg. 26 min."

From Sego, Mr. Park continued his journey along the banks of the Niger to Silla, a large town about eighty miles to the eaſt of Sego; and here, the tropical rains being ſet in, his finances expended, and various other difficulties concurring to render his farther progreſs extremely dangerous if not impracticable, he terminated his travels to the eaſtward "at a point (ſays major Rennell) ſomewhat more than ſixteen degrees eaſt of Cape Verd, and preciſely in the ſame parallel. The line of diſtance ariſing from this difference of longitude is about 941 geographical miles, or 1090 Britiſh, within the weſtern extremity of Africa; a point which, although ſhort by 200 miles of the deſired ſtation Tombuctoo, the attainment of which would unqueſtionably have been attended with great *eclat*, was yet far beyond what any other European, whoſe travels have been communicated to the European world, had ever reached."

Mr. Park gives the following account of Tombuctoo and Houſſa, from the information he was able to collect concerning thoſe cities, at Sego, and in the courſe of his journey.

"To the north-eaſt of Maſina (a kingdom on the northern bank of the Niger, at a ſhort diſtance from Silla) is ſituated the kingdom of Tombuctoo, the great object of European reſearch; the capital of this kingdom being one of the principal marts for that extenſive commerce which the Moors carry on with the Negroes. The hopes of acquiring wealth in this purſuit, and zeal for propagating their religion, have filled this extenſive city with Moors and Mahomedan converts; the king himſelf and all the chief officers of ſtate are Moors; and they are ſaid to be more ſevere and intolerant in their principles than any other of the Mooriſh tribes in this part of Africa. I was informed by a venerable old negro, that when he firſt viſited Tombuctoo, he took up his lodging at a ſort of public inn, the landlord of which, when he conducted him into his hut, ſpread a mat on the floor, and laid a rope upon it, ſaying: 'If you

are a Muſſulman, you are my friend; ſit down: but if you are a Kafir (infidel), you are my ſlave, and with this rope I will lead you to market.' The preſent king of Tombuctoo is named Abu Abrahima. He is reported to poſſeſs immenſe riches. His wives and concubines are ſaid to be clothed in ſilk, and the chief officers of ſtate live in conſiderable ſplendor. The whole expence of his government is defrayed, as I was told, by a tax upon merchandiſe, which is collected at the gates of the city.

"The city of Houſſa (the capital of a large kingdom to the eaſtward of Tombuctoo) is another great mart for Mooriſh commerce. I converſed with many merchants who had viſited that city; and they all agreed that it is larger and more populous than Tombuctoo. The trade, police, and government, are nearly the ſame in both; but, in Houſſa, the Negroes are in greater proportion to the Moors, and have ſome ſhare in the government."

Mr. Park was likewiſe told by a ſhereef who reſided at Walet, the capital of the kingdom of Beeroo, to the northward of Sego, and who had viſited Houſſa, and lived ſome years at Tombuctoo, "that Houſſa was the largeſt town he had ever ſeen: that Walet was larger than Tombuctoo; but being remote from the Niger, and its trade conſiſting chiefly of ſalt, it was not ſo much reſorted to by ſtrangers: that between Benowm and Walet was ten days journey, but the road did not lead through any remarkable towns, and travellers ſupported themſelves by purchaſing milk from the Arabs, who keep their herds by the watering places: two of the days' journey was over a ſandy country without water. From Walet to Tombuctoo was eleven days more; but water was more plentiful, and the journey was uſually performed upon bullocks. He ſaid there were many Jews at Tombuctoo but they all ſpoke Arabic, and uſed the ſame prayers as the Moors."

The city of Tombuctoo is placed by major Rennell, from a compariſon of all the accounts received of it, in north latitude 16° 30′; eaſt longitude 1° 33′.

We ſhall here add a ſhort account of the country of Dar-Fûr, another kingdom of the interior of Africa lately viſited by Mr. Browne. "Dar-Fûr, or the country of Fûr, is ſituated to the ſouth of Egypt and Nubia, and to the weſt of Abyſſinia. Cobbé, its capital, ſtands, according to Mr. Browne, in north latitude 14° 11′; eaſt longitude 28° 8′. In Dar-Fûr wood is found in great quantity, except where the rocky nature of the ſoil abſolutely impedes vegetation; nor are the natives aſſiduous completely to clear the ground, even where it is deſigned for the cultivation of grain. The perennial rains, which fall here from the middle of June till the middle of September in greater or leſs quantity, but generally both frequent and violent, ſuddenly inveſt the face of the country, till then dry and ſterile, with a delightful verdure. The tame animals in Dar-Fûr are camels, horſes, ſheep, oxen, and dogs; the wild ones, lions, leopards, hyænas, wolves, jackals, and elephants, which in the places they frequent, go, according to report, in large herds of four or five hundred; it is even ſaid that two thouſand are ſometimes found together. The antelope and oſtrich are alſo extremely common. The population of the country Mr. Browne eſtimates at 200,000 ſouls: Cobbé, the capital, he thinks does not contain more than 6,000 inhabitants. This town is more than two miles in length, but very narrow; and the houſes, each of which occupies within its incloſure a large portion of ground, are divided by conſiderable waſte. The walls of the houſes are of clay, and the people of higher rank cover them with a kind of plaſter, and

colour them white, red, and black. The diſpoſition of the people of Dar-Fûr is more cheerful than that of the Egyptians. Dancing is practiſed by the men as well as the women, and they often dance promiſcuouſly. But the vices of thieving, lyeing and cheating in bargains, are here almoſt univerſal. No property, whether conſiderable or trifling, is ſafe out of the ſight of the owner. Their religion is the Mahomedan, but they allow polygamy without limitation; and they are little addicted to jealouſy. To the women are aſſigned the moſt laborious employments: they till the ground, gather in the corn, make the bread, and even build the houſes. The government is deſpotic; though the monarch can do nothing contrary to the koran. He ſpeaks of the ſoil and productions as his perſonal property, and of the people as his ſlaves. His revenues ariſe from the tenth of all merchandiſe imported; the tribute of the Arabs who breed oxen, horſes, camels, and ſheep; and ſome other duties: the ſultan is beſides the chief merchant in the country, and diſpatches with every caravan to Egypt a great quantity of his own merchandiſe. The name of the preſent ſultan is Abd-el-rachman. When Mr. Browne was in the country, he was admitted to a great public audience given by the ſultan. He found him ſeated on his throne, under a lofty canopy, attended by his guards. The ſpace in front was filled with ſuitors and ſpectators to the number of more than fifteen hundred. A kind of hired encomiaſt ſtood on the monarch's left hand, crying out, with all his ſtrength, during the whole ceremony—"See the buffaloe, the offspring of a buffaloe, a bull of bulls, the elephant of ſuperior ſtrength, the powerful ſultan, Abd-el-rachman-el-raſhid!—May God prolong thy life!—O Maſter!—May God aſſiſt thee and render thee victorious!"—Abd-el-rachman uſurped the throne from his nephew, whom he conquered in battle, in the year 1787."

## WESTERN AND EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

ON the Weſtern coaſt of Africa, proceeding ſouthwards from the empire of Morocco, we paſs the country of Zahara, inhabited by Mooriſh and Arab tribes, called the Monſelemines, Mongearts, Wadelims, and Traſarts, who extend nearly to the mouth of the river Senegal, where the French had a fort and factory, and were entire maſters of the gum-trade. It is called Fort Louis, was taken by the Engliſh in 1758, and confirmed to them by the peace of 1763; but in 1783, it was reſtored to France. Near Cape Verd is the iſland of Goree, conſidered as one of the ſafeſt, pleaſanteſt, and moſt important ſettlements in all Africa. It was ſubject to France, but has been lately taken by the Engliſh. To the ſouthward of Cape Verd, in latitude 8 deg. 12 min. north, and about 12 deg. lon. weſt, is the ſettlement of Sierra Leone, formed from the pureſt motives of humanity, under the patronage of a very reſpectable ſociety of gentlemen in London, in the year 1791. The benevolent purpoſes for which it was intended are to introduce the light of knowledge and the comforts of civiliſation into Africa, and to cement and perpetuate the moſt confidential union between the European colony and the natives of that country.

A ſettlement of a ſimilar nature was formed upon the iſland of Bulam, on the ſame coaſt, to the eaſtward of the iſland of Biſgos. But this is now

entirely relinquiſhed. A great part of the coloniſts were maſſacred by the natives of the ſhore at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accuſtomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam. The ſurviving coloniſts took refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone.

In the latter end of September 1794, a French ſquadron attacked this ſettlement, carried off or deſtroyed all the ſtores and whatever they could find belonging to the company, and burned all the public buildings and houſes of the Europeans, and ſeveral likewiſe (as they ſaid, by miſtake,) of thoſe of the negro coloniſts. The colony, however, has not been abandoned, but the directors have taken ſuch meaſures as have repaired their loſſes, and will no doubt tend ſtill more to increaſe the trade and cultivation of the ſettlement. The coloniſts are on the happieſt terms of friendſhip with the natives, and make great progreſs in clearing and improving the lands allotted them.

The country or coaſt of Guinea (or Upper Guinea) extends from 12 deg. weſt lon. to 8 deg. eaſt, nearly in the parallel of 6 deg. north lat. It comprehends the grain coaſt, the tooth coaſt, the gold coaſt, the ſlave coaſt, (which includes Whidah and Ardrah, now ſubject to Dahomy,) and Benin. The principal kingdom on theſe coaſts is Dahomy, the monarch of which ſubdued and annexed to his dominions Whidah and Ardrah between the years 1724 and 1727. The country of Dahomy, as known at preſent, (according to the hiſtory of it by Mr. Dalzel, governor of Cape Coaſt Caſtle,) is ſuppoſed to reach from the ſea-coaſt about 150 or 200 miles inland, though no European has penetrated above half that diſtance; the capital, Abomey, lies in about 8 deg. north lat. and 3 deg. 20 min. eaſt lon. The ſoil is a deep rich clay of a reddiſh colour, with a little ſand on the ſurface. In ſome places it is a little light and gravelly; but there is not a ſtone ſo big as an egg in the whole country, ſo far as it has been viſited by the Europeans. It plentifully produces, according to the quantity of culture, maize and millet, or Guinea corn of different ſorts, a kind of beans, or rather kidney-beans, called callavances, and alſo a ſpecies of beans called ground-beans. The Dahomans likewiſe cultivate yams, potatoes of two ſorts, the caſſada or manioka; the plantain and the banana, pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, guavas, and other tropical fruits alſo abound in this fertile country. Nor is it deſtitute of productions adapted for commerce and manufactures; ſuch as indigo, cotton, the ſugar cane, tobacco, palm-oil, together with a variety of ſpices, particularly a ſpecies of pepper very ſimilar in flavour, and indeed ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable from the black pepper of the Eaſt Indies. Dahomy abounds with buffaloes, deer, ſheep, goats, hogs both wild and domeſtic, poultry of various kinds, particularly pintadas, or Guinea hens, and Muſcovy ducks. The elephant, though its fleſh be coarſe, is made uſe of as food by the natives; and dogs are reared for the ſame purpoſe. The dreſs of the men in Dahomy conſiſts of a pair of ſtriped or white cotton drawers of the manufacture of the country, over which they wear a large ſquare cloth of the ſame, or of European manufacture. This cloth is about the ſize of a common counterpane for the middling claſs, but much larger for the grandees. It is wrapped about the loins, and tied on the left ſide by two of the corners, the other hanging down and ſometimes trailing on the ground. A piece of ſilk or velvet of ſixteen or eighteen yards makes a cloth for a grandee. The head is uſually covered with a beaver or felt hat, according to the quality of the wearer. The king, as well as ſome of his miniſters, often wears a gold and ſilver-

laced hat and feather. The arms and upper part of the body are uſually naked: and the feet are always bare, none but the ſovereign being permitted to wear ſandals. The dreſs of the women, though ſimple, conſiſts of a greater number of articles than that of the men. They uſe ſeveral cloths and handkerchiefs; ſome to wrap round the loins, and others to cover occaſionally the breaſts and upper part of the body. They adorn the neck, arms, and ancles with beads and cowries, and wear rings of ſilver or baſer metals on their fingers; girls, before the age of puberty, wear nothing but a ſtring of beads or ſhells round their loins, and young women uſually expoſe the breaſts to view. The general character of the Dahomans is marked by a mixture of ferocity and politeneſs. The former appears in the treatment of their enemies: the latter they poſſeſs far above the African nations with whom we have hitherto had any intercourſe; this being the country where ſtrangers are leaſt expoſed to inſults, and where it is eaſy to reſide in ſecurity and tranquillity. The language is that which the Portugueſe call *Lingua Geral*, or General Tongue, and is ſpoken not only in Dahomy Proper, but in Whidah, and the other dependent ſtates; and likewiſe in Mahee, and ſeveral neighbouring places. With reſpect to the Dahoman religion, it conſiſts of a jumble of ſuperſtitious ceremonies, of which it is impoſſible to convey any ſatisfactory idea. The government is, perhaps, the moſt perfect deſpotiſm on the earth; the policy of the country admits of no intermediate degree of ſubordination between king and ſlave, at leaſt in the royal preſence, where the prime miniſter is obliged to proſtrate himſelf with as much abject ſubmiſſion as the meaneſt ſubject. A miniſter of ſtate, on his entrance, crawls towards the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he arrives in the royal preſence, where he lays himſelf flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the duſt, and uttering the moſt humiliating expreſſions. Being deſired to advance, he receives the king's commands, or communicates any particular buſineſs, ſtill continuing proſtrate; for no perſon is permitted to ſit, even on the floor, in the royal preſence, except the women, and even they muſt kiſs the ground when they receive or deliver the king's meſſage. The king of Dahomy maintains a conſiderable ſtanding army, commanded by an agaow or general, with ſeveral other ſubordinate military officers, who muſt hold themſelves in readineſs to take the field upon all occaſions, at the command of the ſovereign. The payment of theſe troops chiefly depends on the ſucceſs of the expeditions in which they are engaged. On extraordinary occaſions, all the males able to bear arms are obliged to repair to the general's ſtandard; every caboceer, or grandee, marching at the head of his own people. Sometimes the king takes the field at the head of his troops; and, on very great emergencies, at the head of his women. Within the walls of the different royal palaces in Dahomy are immured not leſs than three thouſand women, ſeveral hundreds of whom are trained to arms under a female general and ſubordinate officers appointed by the king, in the ſame manner as thoſe under the agaow. Theſe warriors are regularly exerciſed, and go through their evolutions with as much expertneſs as the male ſoldiers. They have their large umbrellas, their flags, their drums, trumpets, flutes, and other muſical inſtruments. The ſingularity of this inſtitution never fails to attract particularly the attention of Europeans, when among other uncommon exhibitions they are preſented with the unuſual ſpectacle of a review of female troops.

Benin is a country to the eaſt of Dahomy, and extending from about 9 deg. north latitude to 1 deg. ſouth. The climate is ſaid to be extremely unwholeſome and noxious. The animals are elephants, tygers, leopards,

apes, and oſtriches, and in the rivers are a great number of crocodiles. The dreſs of the natives is neat and ornamental. The rich wear white calico or cotton petticoats, but the upper part of the body is commonly naked. The women uſe great art in dreſſing their hair, which they adjuſt in a variety of forms. Polygamy is common, and the king is ſaid to have ſix hundred wives. Though jealous of each other, they are not ſo of Europeans, as they think it impoſſible that the taſte of the women can be ſo depraved as to grant any liberties to a white man. Their religion is paganiſm. The king exerciſes an abſolute authority: three great officers, diſtinguiſhed by a ſtring of coral, continually attend upon him to conſult, inſtruct, and decide in his name. He can bring into the field an army of 100,000 men. Benin, the capital, ſituated on the river Benin or Formoſa, was formerly a very cloſely built and populous city. In the ſtreets, which are long and broad, are many ſhops filled with European merchandiſe, as well as with the commodities of the country. A principal part of the town is occupied by the royal palace, which is of vaſt extent, but neither elegant nor commodious.

To the ſouth of Benin is the country of Loango, which is about 250 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. The climate of this kingdom is nearly as hot as any under the torrid zone, and much hotter than thoſe of Congo and Angola. Loango was formerly ſubject to, and made a part of the kingdom of Congo.

Congo (or Lower Guinea) is the name frequently given to the whole tract of country on the coaſt from the equator to 18 degrees of ſouth latitude, including the kingdoms of Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela; but Congo Proper is only 150 miles broad along the coaſt, though it extends it is ſaid 370 inland. It is bounded on the north by Loango, on the ſouth by Angola, and on the eaſt by an unknown country, the name of which is ſaid to be Metamba. The climate is extremely hot in ſummer; but the winters are as mild as the fineſt ſprings of Italy. The animals it produces are elephants of a monſtrous ſize, lions, leopards, tygers, wolves, zebras, buffaloes, &c. The country is likewiſe infeſted with a vaſt variety of ſerpents, ſome of them of a monſtrous length and thickneſs; rattle-ſnakes, vipers, ſcorpions, and venomous inſects of various kinds, both flying and reptile; the moſt pernicious and dangerous of which is the ant or piſmire, which will not only deſtroy the fruits of the earth, but in the night ſurround even beaſts and men in prodigious ſwarms, and devour them in a few hours, leaving only the bones. The character, manners, religion, and government of the natives of Congo, nearly reſemble thoſe of the negro kingdoms on this coaſt. The Portugueſe have ſeveral ſettlements in this country.

To the ſouth of Congo is the country of Angola, which is ſaid to be divided among a number of petty princes. The Portugueſe have ſeveral ſettlements on the coaſt; but the Engliſh and Dutch traffic with the natives, and purchaſe a great number of ſlaves.

Between Angola and the country of the Hottentots are the countries of Benguela and Mataman; but theſe are very little known to Europeans, and the latter is almoſt entirely deſert.

On the Eaſtern coaſt of Africa, proceeding northwards from the Cape of Good-Hope, we find the country of Sofala, where the Portugueſe have a ſettlement of great importance for their trade to the Eaſt-Indies, which is protected by a fort built on a ſmall iſland near the mouth of a river. The natives of Sofala are for the moſt part black, with ſhort curled hair, there being but very few tawny or brown among

them. Thoſe on the coaſt ſpeak the Arabic language, for they are not the original natives, but deſcendants of Arabs who ſettled on this coaſt. Sofala, according to the report of the Portugueſe ſettlers, contains ſome gold mines of conſiderable value.

To the northward of Sofala is Monomotapa, a country lying between the 15th and 20th degrees of ſouth latitude. The climate is temperate, and the ſoil fertile in rice and ſugar-canes, which laſt grow without cultivation. There are here vaſt herds of elephants, and great numbers of oſtriches. This country poſſeſſes mines of gold and ſilver. The inhabitants are negroes. Like moſt of the other nations of Africa, they admit of unlimited polygamy; and the king is ſaid to have above a thouſand wives, moſt of them the daughters of petty chiefs. The army of the king conſiſts only of foot, for there are no horſes in the country. The Portugueſe had a ſettlement here in 1560, but they were all murdered or forced away.

Beyond Monomotapa, ſtill proceeding northward, ſtretches the extenſive country of Zanguebar, containing the kingdoms of Moſambique, Melinda, and ſeveral others. Moſambique conſiſts of three iſlands, on the weſt ſide of a channel of the ſame name. The principal, which is not more than three miles in length, and half as much in breadth, is about two miles from the continent. It was ſeized by the Portugueſe in 1497, and they have kept poſſeſſion of it ever ſince.—The capital of this iſland, named likewiſe Moſambique, is large and well fortified, having a ſtrong citadel to defend the harbour. The Portugueſe generally keep a ſtrong garriſon here; and trade with the natives for gold, elephants' teeth, and ſlaves. They have built ſeveral churches and monaſteries, and a large hoſpital for ſick ſailors. Their ſhips always call here in going to the Eaſt Indies, and the harbour is ſo commodious that whole fleets may anchor and provide themſelves with all neceſſaries. Moſambique is ſituated in lat. 15 deg. 5 min. ſouth, lon. 40 deg. 10 min. eaſt.

The kingdom of Melinda produces gold, elephants' teeth, oſtrich feathers, wax, aloes, ſenna, and other drugs; alſo plenty of rice, ſugar, cocoa-nuts, and other tropical fruits. The natives are ſome of them black, and ſome tawny: the women are moſtly of an olive complexion. Their dreſs, among the higher claſſes, is remarkably elegant; for they never appear abroad but in fine ſilks girt with rich gold or ſilver girdles, collars and bracelets of the ſame, or ſomething more valuable, and their heads covered with veils. The men wear a kind of turban; in other reſpects their dreſs conſiſts of a piece of cotton wrapped about the middle, and deſcending a little below the knees; their legs, feet, and the reſt of the body, are quite bare. The meaner ſort, and thoſe who live farther from the coaſt, wear little elſe than a piece of cloth round the middle, if we except their ſhield and weapons, which are the bow and arrows, the ſcymetar and javelin. Their government is monarchical; and in ſuch veneration is the king held by his ſubjects, that, whenever he ſtirs out from his palace, he is carried in a ſedan on the ſhoulders of four or more of the greateſt nobles of the kingdom; and incenſe and other perfumes are burned before him, as he goes through the ſtreets of any city, by a great number of ladies, who ſing ſongs in his praiſe, accompanied by various kinds of muſical inſtruments. The population of the kingdom is eſtimated at about 200,000 perſons. With reſpect to religion, the generality are Pagans, ſome are Mahomedans, and ſome Chriſtians, converted by the Portugueſe, who have in the capital (likewiſe named Melinda) ſeventeen churches, nine

convents, and warehouſes well provided with European goods. The city is ſurrounded by fine gardens, and has a good harbour defended by a fort; but the entrance is dangerous, on account of the great number of ſhoals and rocks under water.

The country of Ajan is the boundary of Zanguebar towards the north. It lies between lat. 2 deg. and 12 deg. north, extending from the river Magadoxo to Cape Gardafui, and contains ſeveral ſtates or kingdoms; the principal of which are Adel or Zeila, and Magadoxo, the inhabitants of both which are Mahomedans. All the eaſtern coaſt of Ajan is ſaid to be ſandy and barren, but to the north the country is more fertile. The kings of Ajan are frequently at war with the emperor of Abyſſinia, and ſell the priſoners which they take: they trade likewiſe in ivory, gold, and horſes of an excellent breed.

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## COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

THE country of the Hottentots is a large region in the Southern extremity of Africa, extending North by Weſt from the Cape of Good Hope, beyond the mouth of Orange-river, and from that Cape in an Eaſt North Eaſt direction to the mouth of the Great Fiſh-river.

"During the thirty-ſix hours which I ſpent (ſays Monſieur Vaillant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make ſeveral obſervations concerning them. I remarked that they made a clapping noiſe with their tongue, like the reſt of the Hottentots. When they accoſt any one, they ſtretch forth the hand, ſaying, *Tabe!* I ſalute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffrees, are not uſed by the Hottentots properly ſo called.

"This affinity of cuſtoms, manners, and even conformation; their being ſo near Great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me that theſe *hordes* of Gonaquas, who equally reſemble the Caffrees and the Hottentots, muſt be a mixed breed produced by theſe two nations. The dreſs of the men, arranged with more ſymmetry, has the ſame ſhape as that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves' inſtead of ſheep's ſkins; they are both called *kroſs*. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks, a bit of ivory, or very white ſheep bone; and this contraſt of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

"When the weather is exceſſively hot, the men lay aſide every part of their dreſs that is ſuperfluous, and retain only what they name their *jackals*. This is a piece of ſkin of the animal ſo called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is faſtened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be conſidered as an uſeleſs appendage, and is of very little ſervice to their modeſty; the women, much fonder of dreſs than the men, employing more care in adorning their perſons. They wear a *kroſs* like the latter, but the apron which conceals their ſex is larger than thoſe of the Hottentots. During the great heats they retain only this apron, with a ſkin which deſcends behind from their girdle to the calf of the leg: young girls below the age of nine years go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a ſmall apron.

"Whatever may be the extent of the deſerts of Africa, we muſt not form any calculation reſpecting its population from thoſe innumerable ſwarms of blacks which are found on the weſt, and which border all the

coaſt of the ocean from the Canary iſles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; ſince by a trade approved by a few, and held in deteſtation by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced theſe negroes, by the moſt villainous attractions, to give up their priſoners, or thoſe who are inferior to them in ſtrength. As their wants increaſed, they have become inhuman and perfidious beings: the prince has ſold his ſubjects; the mother has ſold her ſon; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

"This diſguſting and execrable traffic is, however, ſtill unknown in the interior parts of the continent. The deſert is really a deſert; and it is only at certain diſtances that one meets with a few *hordes*, that are not numerous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, one muſt travel a great way to find another. The heat of the climate, the dryneſs of the ſands, the barrenneſs of the earth, a ſcarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals; and, beſides theſe, the humour of the Hottentots, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament—are all obſtacles to propagation. When a father has ſix children, it is accounted a phænomenon.

"The country of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thouſand people in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. Theſe people did not reſemble thoſe degenerated and miſerable Hottentots, who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contemptible and deſpiſed inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expenſe of their liberty, only a little peace, purchaſed at a dear rate, by the exceſſive labour to which they are ſubjected on the plantations, and by the deſpotiſm of their chiefs, who are always ſold to government. I had here (continues M. Vaillant) an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence, and never obeying any impulſe foreign to nature.

"Their huts, conſtructed like thoſe of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or ſheep-ſkins, but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening, very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the family kindled their fire. The thick ſmoke with which theſe kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the ſtench which they always retain, would have ſtifled any European who might have had the courage to remain in them two minutes; cuſtom, however, renders all this ſupportable to theſe ſavages.

"The two colours for which they ſhew the greateſt fondneſs are red and black. The firſt is compoſed of a kind of ochry earth, which is found in ſeveral places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with greaſe; this earth has a great reſemblance to brick-duſt, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing elſe than ſoot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments, varied with a certain degree of ſymmetry: and this part of their dreſs requires no ſmall length of time. Theſe two colours, ſo much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the *boughou*, which is not very agreeable to the ſmell of an European. A Hottentot would, perhaps, find our odours and eſſences no leſs inſupportable; but the *boughou* has over our rouge and paſtes the advantage of not being pernicious to the ſkin,

of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is acquainted with neither amber, muſk, nor benzoin, never knows what it is to be oppreſſed by vapours, ſpaſms, and the head-ach. The men never paint their faces, but they uſe a preparation made of both colours mixed to paint the upper lip as far as the noſtrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the ſubſtance employed for this purpoſe. Young girls ſometimes favour their lovers ſo far as to apply this paint for them under the noſe; and on this point they ſhow a kind of coquetry, which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, muſt not infer that the Hottentot women pay ſo much attention to dreſs as to neglect thoſe daily and uſeful occupations to which nature and their uſages call them. Separated from Europe by an immenſity of ſea, and from the Dutch colonies by deſert mountains and impaſſable rocks, too much communication with theſe people has not yet led them to the exceſſes of our depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happineſs of becoming mothers, Nature addreſſes them in a different language; they aſſume, more than in any other country, a ſpirit ſuitable to their ſtate, and readily give themſelves up to thoſe cares which ſhe imperiouſly requires of them.

"They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exerciſe they diſplay great dexterity. Beſides gins and ſnares, which they place at convenient ſpots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them alſo, attack them as ſoon as they appear, and kill them with their poiſoned arrows, or their aſſagays, which are a kind of lances. On the firſt view of their arrows, one would not ſuſpect how deſtructive weapons they are: their ſmallneſs renders them ſo much the more dangerous, as it is impoſſible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and conſequently to avoid them. The ſlighteſt wound which they make always proves mortal, if the poiſon reaches the blood, and if the fleſh be torn. The ſureſt remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb; but if the wound be in the body, death is unavoidable. The aſſagay is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, beſides this, its length renders it not dangerous, for, as it may be ſeen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it.

"The Hottentots have not the leaſt notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither ſow nor plant, nor do they even reap any crop. When they chooſe to give themſelves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor compoſed of honey and a certain root, which they ſuffer to ferment in a ſufficient quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their uſual beverage, nor do they ever keep a ſtock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themſelves in this manner at certain periods. They ſmoke the leaves of a plant which they name *dagba*, and not *daka*, as ſome authors have written. This plant is not indigenous: it is the hemp of Europe. There are ſome of the ſavages who prefer theſe leaves to tobacco; but the greateſt part of them are fond of mixing both together. They ſet leſs value on the pipes brought from Europe, than on thoſe which they fabricate themſelves; the former appear to them to be too ſmall.

"Though they rear abundance of ſheep and oxen, they ſeldom kill the latter, unleſs ſome accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for ſervice. Their principal nouriſhment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, beſides which they have the produce of their hunting excurſions, and from time to time they kill a ſheep. To

fatten their animals, they employ a proceſs, which, though not practiſed in Europe, is no leſs efficacious, and has this peculiar advantage, that it requires no care. They bruiſe, between two flat ſtones, thoſe parts which we deprive them of by the knife; and when thus compreſſed, they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a moſt delicate morſel when they have reſolved to ſacrifice the animal.

"Thoſe oxen which they intend for carrying burdens muſt be broke and trained very early to the ſervice, otherwiſe they would become abſolutely untractable. On this account, when the animal is ſtill young, they pierce the cartilage which ſeparates the noſtrils, and thruſt through the hole a piece of ſtick about eight or ten inches in length, and almoſt an inch in diameter. The taſk of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women: and, as they never beat or torment them, they are ſurpriſingly tractable.

"Of their ſheep and kine each village has one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdſman. This charge requires many precautions very different from thoſe which are taken by our herdſmen, beaſts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the ſouthern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroſes, leopards, tigers, hyænas, and ſeveral kinds of wolves more deſtructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the foreſts, and occaſionally make excurſions towards the Cape, and deſtroy the tame cattle. To prevent theſe misfortunes, it is the buſineſs of the herdſman to go or ſend every day round his diſtrict, in order to diſcover if any beaſt of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which caſe he aſſembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the ſtouteſt among them arm themſelves with javelins and poiſoned arrows, and follow the perſon who may have diſcovered the beaſt, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themſelves in two lines; the herdſmen entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beaſt to follow him out, when he is inevitably deſtroyed.

"Theſe ſavages meaſure the year by the ſeaſons of drought and rainy weather. This diviſion is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is ſubdivided into moons; but they never count the days if they exceed ten, that is to ſay, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day or the time by ſome remarkable occurrence: for example, an extraordinary ſtorm, an elephant killed, an infectious diſorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they diſtinguiſh by the courſe of the ſun; and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, he was *there* when I departed, and *here* when I arrived.

"A ſenſe of delicacy induces the Hottentots to keep themſelves ſeparate from others when they are ſick. They are then ſeldom ſeen, and it would appear that they are aſhamed of having loſt their health.

"When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worſt kroſs, and the limbs are diſpoſed in ſuch a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then carry it to a certain diſtance from the horde, and diſpoſing it in a pit dug for this purpoſe, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with ſtones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mauſoleum proves but a very weak defence againſt the attacks of the jackal and the hyæna: the body indeed is ſoon dug up and devoured. However badly this laſt duty may be diſcharged, the Hottentots are not much to be blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Parſis, ſtill attached

to the cuſtom of expoſing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemeteries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them and carry them away in morſels. The children, and, failing them, the neareſt relations of the deceaſed, take poſſeſſion of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor diviſions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the moſt intrepid march in the van; and when victory declares itſelf, they do not beſtow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved ſucceſsful by the courage of all: it is the whole nation that triumphs.

"Of all the people whom I ever ſaw (obſerves our author,) the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be conſidered as free; but they will perhaps be ſoon obliged to remove to a greater diſtance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the eaſt being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their poſſeſſions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice doubtleſs will ſome day ſucceed. Miſery muſt then be the portion of theſe happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be deſtroyed by maſſacres and invaſions. Thus have all thoſe hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often diſmembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a ſtate of abſolute dependence on the Dutch. The exiſtence of the Hottentots, their names, and their hiſtory, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous; unleſs ſome traveller, who may poſſeſs curioſity enough to induce him to diſcover their remains, ſhould have the courage to penetrate into the remote deſerts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a ſingle plant worthy to engage the attention of the ſpeculative botaniſt.

"It is neceſſary in this narration to take notice of that diſguſting apron of the Hottentot women, which has long made a figure in hiſtory. It is ſtill faſhionable among a certain horde. I ſay it is faſhionable (obſerves our author); for, inſtead of being the gift of nature, it ought to be conſidered as one of the moſt monſtrous refinements ever invented by I know not what coquetry, altogether peculiar to a certain ſmall corner of the world. This ſingularity is nothing elſe but a prolongation of the nymphæ, occaſioned by weights ſuſpended from them. They may hang down about nine inches, more or leſs, according to the age of the perſon, or the aſſiduous care which is beſtowed on this ſingular decoration.

"A phyſiognomiſt, or, if the reader pleaſes, a modern wit, would entertain his company by aſſigning to the Hottentot, in the ſcale of beings, a place between a man and the ouran-outang. I cannot, however, conſent to this ſyſtematic arrangement; the qualities which I eſteem in him will never ſuffer him to be degraded ſo far; and I have found his figure ſufficiently beautiful, becauſe I experienced the goodneſs of his heart. It muſt indeed be allowed, that there is ſomething peculiar in his features, which in a certain degree ſeparates him from the generality of mankind. His cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; ſo that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones, on the contrary, extremely narrow, his viſage continues ſtill decreaſing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankneſs, which makes his head appear very much diſproportioned, and too ſmall for his full and plump body. His flat noſe riſes ſcarcely half an inch at

its greateſt elevation; and his noſtrils, which are exceſſively wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his noſe. His mouth is large, and furniſhed with ſmall teeth well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the noſe, like thoſe of the Chineſe: and to the ſight and touch his hair has the reſemblance of wool; it is very ſhort, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no ſmall care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinneſs of his eye-brows ſaves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the noſe, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as ſoon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which, joined to the natural mildneſs of his character, deſtroys that commanding fierceneſs uſual among ſavages. The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the ſame characteriſtic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breaſts, admirably placed, have a moſt beautiful form while in the bloom of youth: and their hands are ſmall, and their feet exceedingly well ſhaped, though they never wear ſandals. The ſound of their voice is ſoft; and their idiom, paſſing through the throat, is not deſtitute of harmony. When they ſpeak, they employ a great many geſtures, which give power and gracefulneſs to their arms.

The Hottentots are naturally timid; their phlegmatic coolneſs, and their ſerious looks, give them an air of reſerve, which they never lay aſide, even at the moſt joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themſelves up to pleaſure with the livelieſt joy, and without any reſtraint.

A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to inactivity and indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a ſubſiſtence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as ſportſmen, but like people oppreſſed and tormented by hunger. In ſhort, forgetting the paſt, and being under no uneaſineſs for the future, they are ſtruck only with the preſent; and it is that which alone engages their attention.

They are, however, (obſerves M. Vaillant) the beſt, the kindeſt, and the moſt hoſpitable of people. Whoever travels among them may be aſſured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive preſents, yet they never aſk for any thing. If the traveller has a long journey to accompliſh; and if they learn from the information he requires that there are no hopes of his ſoon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit ſupply him with proviſions as far as their circumſtances will allow, and with every thing elſe neceſſary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his deſtination. Such are theſe people, or at leaſt ſuch did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners and of a paſtoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a ſtate of infancy.

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## CAFFRARIA.

THE country known by the general denomination of Caffraria is a very extenſive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyſſinia; on the weſt by part of Guinea, Congo, and the ſea; on the

ſouth by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the eaſt by the ſea. It is divided into ſeveral territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long, and 660 broad.

We ſhall give a more particular deſcription of the people from two modern writers; the firſt celebrated for his botanical knowledge; the other for his taſte in natural hiſtory; but more eſpecially for his very entertaining and intereſting travels into the interior parts of Africa, which, it is hoped, will not prove unacceptable to the reader.

The men among the Caffrees, ſays lieutenant Paterſon, are from five feet ten inches to ſix feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beaſts of prey.

The colour of the Caffrees is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both ſexes is nearly the ſame, conſiſting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of braſs in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are alſo adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers faſtened on their heads, with many other fantaſtical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle; and to ſuch a height do they carry this paſſion, that, if one particularly pleaſes them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exerciſe through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances; and in time of war uſe ſhields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate ſeveral vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country; ſuch as tobacco, water-melons, a ſort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women alſo make baſkets, and the mats which they ſleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in ſuch a way as to be able to turn them into any ſhape they pleaſe; and they teach them to anſwer a whiſtle. When they wiſh their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the houſe, and blow this ſmall inſtrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and ſo conſtructed as to be heard at a great diſtance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The ſoil of this country is a blackiſh loamy ground, and ſo extremely fertile, that every vegetable ſubſtance, whether ſown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance. There are great variations in the climate; but I had no thermometer to obſerve the degrees of heat. It ſeldom rains except in the ſummer ſeaſon, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well ſupplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furniſhes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. From what I obſerved in this country, I am induced to believe, that it is greatly ſuperior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce a variety of arboreous plants, and ſome of a great ſize; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were alſo varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies; but they were ſo ſhy, that I was able only to preſerve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffrees by thoſe I had ſeen, ſays M. Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquas, though they greatly reſemble the latter, but are more robuſt, and poſſeſs a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffrees are likewiſe more agreeable, none of their faces contracting to-

wards the bottom, nor do the cheek-bones of theſe people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours, the negroes of Moſambique, but a well formed contour, an agreeable noſe, with eyes ſparkling and expreſſive: ſo that, ſetting aſide our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handſome by the ſide of an European lady. They do not disfigure themſelves by daubing their eye-brows, like the Hottentots, but are very much tattoed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffrees, which is ſtrong and curling, is never greaſed, but they anoint the reſt of their bodies, with a view of making themſelves active and ſtrong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and braſs rings. They are ſeldom ſeen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tuſks of an elephant, which they ſaw to a convenient thickneſs, and then poliſh and round. As theſe rings cannot be opened, it is neceſſary to make them big enough to paſs the hand through, ſo that they fall or riſe according to the motion of the arm: ſometimes they place ſmall rings on the arms of their children, whoſe growth ſoon fills up the ſpace, and fixes the ornament; a circumſtance which is particularly pleaſing to them.

They likewiſe make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they poliſh and whiten in the moſt perfect manner. Some content themſelves with the leg-bone of a ſheep hanging on the breaſt. In the warm ſeaſon the Caffrees only wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold they make uſe of kroſſes made of the ſkins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deſerves attention, and does not exiſt elſewhere, is, that the Caffree women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other ſavages; and never uſe the uncouth profuſion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like thoſe of the Gonaquas, are bordered with ſmall rows of beads; which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The ſkin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffree woman wears as high as her ſhoulders, tying it over the boſom, which it covers. They have, like the men, a kroſs, or cloak, of calf or ox ſkin, diveſted of the hair; but it is only in the cold or rainy ſeaſon that either ſex wear it. Theſe ſkins are as ſoft and pliant as the fineſt ſtuffs. Let the weather or ſeaſon prove ever ſo bad, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have ſeen the head of a Caffree adorned with a feather ſtuck in the hair; but this ſight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthenware, which they faſhion as dexterouſly as their huſbands; they likewiſe make a curious kind of baſkets, of a texture ſo compact as to contain milk; and they alſo prepare the fields for ſeed, ſcratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick-axes.

The huts of the Caffrees are higher and more commodious than thoſe of the Hottentots: they form perfect hemiſpheres, and are compoſed of wooden work, very ſtrong and compact, covered both within and without of a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening, or door-way, is ſo low, that to enter the dwelling you muſt crawl on your hands and knees; which makes it eaſier to defend themſelves againſt animals, or the ſudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth, or fire-place, is in the centre, ſurrounded by a circular rim which riſes two or three inches.

The lands of Caffraria, either from their ſituation or the number of ſmall rivers that refreſh them, are more fertile than thoſe of the Hottentots. The Caffrees practiſe agriculture; which proves they are not naturally wanderers.

I have remarked, continues M. Vaillant, that, notwithſtanding the beautiful foreſts that adorn Caffraria, and delightful paſtures which ſpring up and almoſt cover the animals which feed on them; notwithſtanding thoſe rivers and ſtreams which croſs each other in a thouſand different directions, to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almoſt all their animals, are much ſmaller than thoſe of the Hottentots;—a difference which undoubtedly ariſes from the nature of the ſap, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of graſs. I have made the obſervation both on domeſtic and wild animals, which never acquire the ſize of thoſe bred in the dry barren countries I have paſſed through.

Induſtry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffrees. Some arts, taught indeed by neceſſity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, diſtinguiſh them as a more civiliſed people than thoſe towards the ſouth.

Circumciſion, which is generally practiſed among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have ſimply imitated the inhabitants of ſome neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance; they do not uſe it (as they ſay) in any religious or myſtical ſenſe.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe in a future ſtate, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked puniſhed; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its preſent ſtate. They have no ſacred ceremonies. They inſtruct their own children, having no prieſts; but, inſtead of them, a kind of ſorcerers or conjurors, whom they greatly diſtinguiſh and revere.

The Caffrees are governed by a chief or king, whoſe power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared, but reſpected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his ſubjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleaſes, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is neceſſary that he ſhould have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed: theſe being his only reſources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher nor better decorated than the reſt; his whole family and ſeraglio live round him, compoſing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts: the adjoining lands are generally of his own cultivation.

It is a cuſtom among the Caffrees, for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nouriſhment, and which they grind or cruſh between two ſtones; for which reaſon, the families living ſeparately, each ſurrounded by his own plantation of corn, occaſions a ſmall *horde* ſometimes to occupy a league ſquare of ground; a circumſtance never ſeen among the Hottentots.

The diſtance of the different *hordes* makes it neceſſary that they ſhould have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he ſends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their ſeveral *hordes*.

The principal weapon of the Caffree is the lance, or aſſaygay; which ſhows his diſpoſition to be at once intrepid and noble, deſpiſing, as be-

low his courage, the envenomed dart, ſo much in uſe among his neighbours; ſeeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a ſhield, of about three feet in height, made of the thickeſt part of the hide of a buffaloe; this defends him from the arrow, or aſſaygay, but is not proof againſt a muſquet-ball. The Caffree alſo manages with great ſkill a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a ſolid piece of wood, three or four inches thick in the largeſt part, and gradually diminiſhing towards one of the ends. When in a cloſe engagement, they ſtrike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the diſtance of fifteen or twenty paces; in which caſe it ſeldom fails of the intended effect.

The ſovereignty here is hereditary, the eldeſt ſon ever ſucceeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother that ſucceeds, but the eldeſt nephew; and in caſe the king ſhould have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon theſe occaſions a ſpirit of party ſometimes prevails, which gives riſe to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodſhed.

Polygamy is cuſtomary among the Caffrees; their marriages are even more ſimple than thoſe of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but ſeldom refuſe their conſent; after which they rejoice, drink, and dance, for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but theſe feaſts are never held but on the firſt eſpouſals. They have no muſical inſtruments, but ſuch as are uſed by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the ſtep is not unlike the Engliſh.

At the death of the father, the ſons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters, claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unleſs it pleaſes ſome man to take them; and if this circumſtance takes place during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are ſeldom buried, but carried away from the kraal, by their family, and depoſited in a deep trench common to the whole horde on ſuch occaſions, where the wild beaſts repair at leiſure; which preſerves the air from thoſe noxious vapours which otherwiſe the putrefaction would occaſion. The honours of burial are due only to the king or chief of a horde; they cover theſe bodies with piles of ſtones in the form of a dome.

I am unacquainted with the diſpoſition of the Caffrees reſpecting love and jealouſy, but believe that they only feel the latter ſenſation in regard to their countrymen; voluntarily giving up their women, for a ſmall conſideration, to the firſt white man that expreſſes an inclination for them.

HISTORY OF AFRICA IN GENERAL.] The hiſtory of the continent of Africa is little known, and probably affords no materials which deſerve to render it more ſo. We know from the ancients, who ſailed a conſiderable way round the coaſts, that the inhabitants were in the ſame rude ſtate near 2000 years ago in which they are at preſent: that is, they had little of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by ſuppoſing that nature has placed ſome inſuperable barrier between the natives of this diviſion of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former, being ſo long accuſtomed to a ſavage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became hardly capable of making any progreſs in civiliſation or ſcience. It is very certain, that all the attempts of Europeans, particularly of the

Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the leaſt impreſſion on theſe ſavage mortals, or giving them the leaſt inclination for, or even idea of, the European manner of living.

The Portugueſe are ſovereigns of the greateſt part of the coaſt, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are ſome independent princes who have extenſive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahomy and Widah, the moſt noted of any for the infamous ſlave-trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human fleſh, and encouraged, in the negro countries, wars, rapine, deſolation, and murder, that the Weſt India iſlands might be ſupplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa has exceeded 100,000, many of whom are driven a thouſand miles to the ſea-coaſt, their villages having been ſurrounded in the night by an armed force, and the inhabitants dragged into perpetual captivity.

A ſea officer lately viſited all the chiefs of the negroes in our ſettlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, an extent of more than 250 miles, and found the police and puniſhment of all crimes regulated by the ſlave-trade. Thoſe who commit crimes or treſpaſſes againſt their laws, are, at the deciſion of twelve elders, ſold for ſlaves for the uſe of their government and the ſupport of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the higheſt crimes, and, whenever they are detected, ſubject the whole family to ſlavery. But any individual, condemned to ſlavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own perſon by furniſhing two ſlaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to ſlavery; if a woman, the female part is ſold. "This traffic in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchaſe them, uſe any pains to inſtruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppreſſion thus exerciſed on them. I am ſorry to ſay, they are unnaturally averſe to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portugueſe, French, and Spaniards, in their ſettlements, ſucceed in their attempts to inſtruct them, as much to the advantage of commerce as of religion. It is for the ſake of Chriſtianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that Engliſh ſlaves embrace every occaſion of deſerting to the ſettlements of thoſe nations."

It is high time for the legiſlature to interfere and put an end to this moſt infamous of all trades, ſo diſgraceful to the Chriſtian name, and ſo repugnant to the principles of our conſtitution. Let the negroes already in our iſlands be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population; meaſures that would be attended with no leſs profit than honour.

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## AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African iſlands, ſome lie in the Eaſtern, or Indian Ocean, and ſome in the Weſtern, or Atlantic. We ſhall begin with thoſe in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are, Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagaſcar, the Comora iſlands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This iſland is ſituated in eaſt long. 55; north lat. 12, thirty leagues eaſt of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa: it is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ſhips uſed formerly to put in when they loſt their

paſſage to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding moſt of the fruits and plants that are uſually found within the tropics, together with frankincenſe, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahomedans of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince, or ſheik, who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The iſland of Babelmandel gives name to the ſtraitat the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is ſituated in eaſt long. 44. 30. north lat. 12; about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyſſinian ſhores. The Abyſſinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of this iſland, as it commands the entrance into the Red Sea, and preſerves a communication with the ocean. This ſtrait was formerly the only paſſage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but ſince the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The iſland is of little value, being a barren ſandy ſpot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. Theſe iſlands are five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazei, and Comora, ſituated between 41 and 46 eaſt long. and between 10 and 14 ſouth lat. at an equal diſtance from Madagaſcar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, or Hinzuan, the chief, and which exacts tribute from the others, is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad, and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics. Eaſt India ſhips, bound to Bombay, uſually touch here for refreſhments. The inhabitants are negroes, of the Mahomedan perſuaſion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largeſt of the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 43 and 51 deg. eaſt long. and between 10 and 26 ſouth lat. 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to ſouth, and generally between 200 and 300 miles broad. The ſea rolls with great rapidity, and extremely rough, between this iſland and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or paſſage, through which all European ſhips in their voyage to and from India generally ſail, unleſs prevented by ſtorms.

Madagaſcar is a pleaſant, deſirable, and fertile country, abounding in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious ſtones, iron, ſome ſilver, copper, ſteel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and champaign; watered with numerous rivers, and well ſtored with fiſh. The air is generally temperate, and ſaid to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; ſome white, ſome negroes, ſome Mahomedans, ſome Pagans. The whites and thoſe of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coaſts, are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language and their religious rites; but here are no moſques, temples, nor any ſtated worſhip, except that they offer ſacrifices of beaſts on particular occaſions; as when ſick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their aſſemblies, circumciſe their children, declare war, enter into new-built houſes, or bury their dead. Many of them obſerve the Jewiſh ſabbath, and give ſome account of the ſacred hiſtory, the creation and fall of man, as alſo of Noah, Abraham, Moſes, and David; from whence it is conjectured they are deſcended from Jews who formerly ſettled here, though none knows how, or when. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and the French took poſſeſſion of it in 1641; but the people diſliking their government, they were driven out in 1652; ſince which the na-

tives have had the ſole poſſeſſion of the iſland, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for ſlaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was ſo called by the Dutch, who firſt touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their ſtadtholder. It is ſituated in eaſt long. 56, ſouth lat. 20, about 400 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ſhips, ſecure againſt any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleaſant. The mountains, of which there are many, and ſome ſo high that their tops are covered with ſnow, produce the beſt ebony in the world, beſides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly reſemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The iſland is watered with ſeveral pleaſant rivers well ſtocked with fiſh, and, though the ſoil is none of the moſt fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and ſheep. It was formerly ſubject to the Dutch, but is now in the poſſeſſion of the French.

BOURBON. The iſle of Bourbon is ſituated in eaſt long. 54. ſouth lat. 21, about 300 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar, and is about ninety miles round. There are many good roads for ſhipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and ſouth ſides; but hardly a ſingle harbour where ſhips can ride ſecure againſt thoſe hurricanes which blow during the monſoons. Indeed the coaſt is ſo ſurrounded with blind rocks, ſunk a few feet below the water, that coaſting along ſhore is at all times dangerous. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames and ſmoke, with a hideous roaring noiſe. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreſhed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the ſea and land: ſometimes, however, terrible hurricanes ſhake the whole iſland almoſt to its foundation; but generally without any other bad conſequence than frightening the inhabitants. The iſland abounds in brooks and ſprings, and in fruits, graſs, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and reſins, particularly benzoin of an excellent ſort, in great plenty. The rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh, the coaſt with land and ſea tortoiſes, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergriſe, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells, are found upon the ſhore. The woods are full of turtle-doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleaſant to the palate. The French firſt ſettled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the iſland of Madagaſcar. They have now ſome conſiderable towns in the iſland, with a governor: and here their Eaſt India ſhips touch and take in refreſhments.

There are a great many more ſmall iſlands about Madagaſcar and on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where deſcribed.

Leaving therefore the eaſtern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immenſe ocean lying between the two grand diviſions of the globe, having Europe, Aſia, and Africa, or the old world, on the eaſt; and America, or the new world, on the weſt; towards which diviſion we now ſteer our courſe, touching in our way at the following iſlands upon the African coaſt, that have not yet been deſcribed, viz. St. Helena,

Aſcenſion, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira iſlands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The firſt iſland on this ſide the Cape is St. Helena, ſituated in weſt long. 5. 49, ſouth lat. 15. 55, being 1200 miles weſt of the continent of Africa, and 1800 eaſt of South America. The iſland is a rock, about twenty-one miles in circumference, very high and very ſteep, and only acceſſible at the landing-place, in a ſmall valley at the eaſt end of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually daſhing on the ſhore, it is generally difficult landing even there. There is no other anchorage about the iſland but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip overſhoots the iſland ever ſo little, ſhe cannot recover it again. The Engliſh plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn: of the laſt, however, moſt part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be deſtroyed; ſo that the flour they uſe, is almoſt wholly imported from England; and in times of ſcarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes inſtead of bread. Though the iſland appears on every ſide a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diverſified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-ſtuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geeſe, and turkeys, with which they ſupply the ſailors, taking in exchange ſhirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, ſilks, muſlin, arrack, ſugar, &c.

St. Helena is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1502 on the feſtival of the empreſs Helena, mother of the emperor Conſtantine the Great, whoſe name it ſtill bears. It does not appear that the Portugueſe ever planted a colony here: and the Engliſh Eaſt India Company took poſſeſſion of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by ſurpriſe. However, the Engliſh, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the ſpace of a year, and at the ſame time took three Dutch Eaſt India ſhips that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the iſland, moſt of them deſcended from Engliſh parents. The Eaſt India ſhips take in water and freſh proviſions here in their way home; but the iſland is ſo ſmall, and the wind ſo much againſt them, outward-bound, that they then very ſeldom ſee it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtore keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed by the company, beſides a public table, well furniſhed, to which all commanders, maſters of ſhips, and principal paſſengers, are welcome.

ASCENSION. This iſland is ſituated in 7 deg. 40 min. ſouth lat. and 14 deg. 18 min. weſt long. 600 miles north-weſt of St. Helena: it received its name from its being diſcovered by the Portugueſe on Aſcenſion-day; and is a mountainous barren iſland, about twenty miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a ſafe convenient harbour, where the Eaſt India ſhips generally touch to furniſh themſelves with turtle, or tortoiſes, which are very plentiful here, and vaſtly large, ſome of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The ſailors going aſhore in the night-time frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are ſometimes ſo cruel as to turn many more than they uſe, leaving them to die on the ſhore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a ſmall iſland lying in 6-1 weſt long. and 1-30 ſouth lat. 300 miles to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, and was alſo diſcovered by the Portugueſe; who planted and kept poſſeſſion of it for

ſome time, but afterwards deſerted it. This iſland now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to ſettle there, except a ſmall lake of freſh water.

The four following iſlands, viz. St. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND, and FERNANDOPO, are ſituated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin: all of them were firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and are ſtill in the poſſeſſion of that nation, and furniſh ſhipping with freſh water and proviſions as they paſs by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands are ſo called from a cape of that name on the African coaſt, near the river Gambia, over againſt which they lie, at the diſtance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. weſt long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were diſcovered in the year 1400, by the Portugueſe, and are about twenty in number; but ſome of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the moſt conſiderable, and are ſubject to the Portugueſe. The air, generally ſpeaking, is very hot, and in ſome of them very unwholeſome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the deſcendents of Europeans, and negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portugueſe viceroy reſides, is the moſt fruitful, beſt inhabited, and largeſt of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is ſugar, cotton, ſome wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden-ſtuff; but the plant of moſt conſequence to them is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is alſo plenty of hogs and poultry, and ſome of the prettieſt green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya (famous for an action between an Engliſh and French ſquadron), is ſituated on the eaſt ſide, has a good port, and is ſeldom without ſhips; theſe outward-bound to Guinea or the Eaſt Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreſhments.

In the iſland of MAYO, or MAY, immenſe quantities of ſalt are made by the heat of the ſun from the ſea-water, which at ſpring-tides is received into a ſort of pan formed by a ſand-bank, which runs along the coaſt for two or three miles. Here the Engliſh drive a conſiderable trade for ſalt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the veſſels that come to load with it, which in ſome years amount to a hundred or more. The ſalt coſts nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on aſſes to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ſhips come hither for a freight of aſſes, which they carry to Barbadoes and other Britiſh plantations. The inhabitants of this iſland, even the governor and prieſts, are all negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. The negro governor expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads ſalt, and is pleaſed to be invited aboard their ſhips. The ſea-water is ſo clear on this coaſt, that an Engliſh ſailor who dropped his watch perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The iſland of FOGO is remarkable for being a volcano, continually ſending up ſulphureous exhalations; and ſometimes the flame breaks forth like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice-ſtones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is ſituated within cannon-ſhot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43. W. long. 17-20, and was ſo called by the Dutch from an iſland and

town of the ſame name in Holland. It is a ſmall ſpot not exceeding two miles in circumference; but its importance ariſes from its ſituation for trade ſo near Cape Verd, and has been therefore an object of contention between European nations. It was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the Engliſh; but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1667 ſubdued by the French, in whoſe poſſeſſion it remained till the year 1759, when the Britiſh arms, every where triumphant, again reduced it; but it was reſtored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the Engliſh the laſt war, but given up again by the peace of 1783.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Iſlands, are ſeven in number, and ſituated between 12 and 19 deg. weſt long. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. Their particular names are Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langarote. Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially grapes, which produce thoſe rich wines that obtain the name of Canary, of which the greateſt part is exported to England, to the amount, it is computed, in time of peace, of 10,000 hogſheads annually. The Canaries abound with thoſe little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now ſo common and ſo much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel thoſe in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and ſo extremely fertile as to produce two harveſts in a year. Teneriffe, the largeſt of theſe iſlands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round: a fertile country abounding in corn, wine, and oil, though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glaſs obſerves, that in coming in with this iſland, in clear weather, the Peak may be eaſily diſcerned at 120 miles diſtance, and in ſailing from it at 150. The peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and, according to the account of Sprat, biſhop of Rocheſter, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, nearly three miles perpendicular; but lately aſcertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and ſometimes throws out ſuch quantities of ſulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richeſt lands into barren deſerts. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans deſtroying that ſtate, put a ſtop to the navigation on the weſt coaſt of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the reſt of the world, until they were again diſcovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they ſtill belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives reſemble the Africans in their ſtature and complexion, when the Spaniards firſt came among them, their language was different from that ſpoken on the continent; they retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, and did not know there was any country in the world beſides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three iſlands called the Madeiras are ſituated, according to the author of Anſon's voyage, in a fine climate, in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 weſt long. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many weſt of Sallee, in Morocco. The largeſt, from which the reſt derive the general name of Madeiras, on account of its being formerly almoſt covered with wood, is about ſeventy-five miles long, ſixty broad, and 180 in circumference. It is compoſed of one continued hill of a conſiderable height, extending from eaſt to weſt;

the declivity of which, on the ſouth ſide, is cultivated, and interſperſed with vineyards; and in the midſt of this ſlope the merchants have fixed their country-ſeats, which form a very agreeable proſpect. There is but one conſiderable town in the whole iſland, which is named Funchal, ſeated on the ſouth part of the iſland, at the bottom of a large bay: towards the ſea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is poſſible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large ſtones, and a violent ſurf continually beats upon it.

Though this iſland ſeems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1519; but others aſſert that it was firſt diſcovered by an Engliſhman in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of it, and are ſtill almoſt the only people who inhabit it. The Portugueſe, at their firſt landing, finding it little better than a thick foreſt, rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by ſetting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing, in great abundance, the richeſt wine, ſugar, the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds alſo with boars and other wild beaſts, and with all ſorts of fowls, beſides numerous groves of cedar trees, and thoſe that yield dragon's blood, maſtic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this iſle make the beſt ſweetmeats in the world, and ſucceed wonderfully in preſerving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed paſtes, which exceed thoſe of Genoa. The ſugar they make is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This indeed is ſaid to be the firſt place in the weſt where that manufacture was ſet on foot, and from thence was carried to the Braſils in America. The Portugueſe, not finding it ſo profitable as at firſt, have pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the iſland, Malmſey, and Tent; of all which the inhabitants make and ſell prodigious quantities. Not leſs than 20,000 hogſheads of Madeira, it is ſaid, are yearly exported, the greateſt part to the Weſt Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes: the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when expoſed to the ſun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is ſaid no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other iſlands, one called Porto Santo, which lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compaſs, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ſhips may ride with ſafety againſt all winds except the ſouth-weſt, and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward-bound. The other iſland is an inconſiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we cloſe the account of Africa, we continue our courſe weſtward, through this immenſe ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Weſtern Iſlands, ſituated between 25 and 32 deg. weſt long. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles weſt of Portugal, and as many eaſt of Newfoundland, lying almoſt in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciоſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were diſcovered in the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joſhua Vander Berg a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Liſbon, was, by ſtreſs of weather, driven to theſe iſlands, which he found deſtitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemiſh

iſlands. On his arrival at Liſbon, he boaſted of this diſcovery; on which the Portugueſe ſet ſail immediately and took poſſeſſion of them, which they ſtill retain. They were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All theſe iſlands enjoy a very clear and ſerene ſky, with a ſalubrious air, but are expoſed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently ſuffered; and alſo by inundations of the ſurrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, alſo cattle, fowl, and fiſh. It is ſaid that no poiſonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and that, if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largeſt, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the Engliſh in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the moſt important of theſe iſlands, on account of its harbour, which is ſpacious and has good anchorage; but it is expoſed to the ſouth-eaſt winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the reſidence of the governor of theſe iſlands, as well as of the biſhop.

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# AMERICA.

## ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vaſt extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many reſpects more to that of nature than any other diviſion of the globe. The particular circumſtances of this country require that we ſhould in ſome meaſure vary our plan, and, before deſcribing its preſent ſtate, afford ſuch information with regard to its diſcovery as is moſt neceſſary for ſatisfying our readers.

Towards the cloſe of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their ſupport to commerce. An interference of intereſts inſpired a mutual rivalſhip; but in traffic Venice was much ſuperior. She engroſſed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the moſt valuable in the world, but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Aſia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this ſtate of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whoſe knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much ſuperior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of ſailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new ſource of opulence and power. But this propoſal of ſailing weſtward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoeſe as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as abſurd. Stung with diſappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, and laid his ſcheme before the court of France; where his reception was ſtill more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next reſort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the moſt oppoſite imaginable to a great but uncertain deſign. In Portugal, where the ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery about this time began to operate, he had reaſon to expect better ſucceſs. But the Portugueſe contented themſelves with creep-

ing along the coaſt of Africa, and diſcovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open ſea. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expenſe, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, ſtill remained firm; he became the more intent on his deſign, the more difficulty he found in accompliſhing it, and was inſpired with that noble enthuſiaſm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only reſource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he ſucceeded, and chiefly through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon the moſt adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; the moſt ſtriking was the variation of the compaſs, then firſt obſerved, and which ſeemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered in an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forſake him. His ſailors, always diſcontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and inſiſted on their return. But the firmneſs of the commander, and much more the diſcovery of land after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus firſt landed on one of the Bahama iſlands; but here, to his ſurpriſe and ſorrow, diſcovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that theſe could not be the Indies he was in queſt of. In ſteering ſouthward, however, he found the iſland called Hiſpaniola, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people, and, what was of ſtill greater conſequence, as it inſured his favourable reception at home, promiſing, from ſome ſamples he received, conſiderable quantities of gold. This iſland therefore he propoſed to make the centre of his diſcoveries; and, having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the neceſſary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona: Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidſt the acclamations of the people, attended by ſome of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, the utenſils, and ornaments, of the country he had diſcovered. This entry into Barcelona was a ſpecies of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the iſlands in the great ſea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had diſcovered were conſidered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave riſe to this opinion was detected, and the true poſition of the new world was aſcertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of the *Weſt Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants. Thus were the Weſt Indies diſcovered by ſeeking a paſſage to the Eaſt; and, even after the diſcovery, ſtill conceived to be a part of the Eaſtern hemiſphere. The preſent ſucceſs of Columbus, his former diſappointments, and the glory attending ſo unexpected a diſcovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his deſigns now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of ſeventeen ſail was immediately prepared: all the neceſſaries for conqueſt or diſcovery were embarked; 1500 men, among whom were ſeveral of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the moſt ample authority. It is impoſſible to determine whether the genius of this great man, in firſt conceiving the idea of theſe diſcoveries, or

his ſagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, moſt deſerves our admiration. Inſtead of hurrying from ſea to ſea, and from one iſland to another, which, conſidering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with ſuch a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curioſity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the diſcoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himſelf the unavailing applauſe of viſiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleaſure of ſeeing them. With this view he made for Hiſpaniola, where he eſtabliſhed a colony, and erected forts in the moſt advantageous grounds for ſecuring the dependence of the natives. Having ſpent a conſiderable time in this employment, and laboured for eſtabliſhing this colony, with as much zeal and aſſiduity as if his views had extended no further, he next proceeded to aſcertain the importance of his other diſcoveries, and to examine what advantages were moſt likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from ſome ſpecimens, ſeemed a rich diſcovery; but whether it was an iſland, or a part of ſome great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To aſcertain this point was the preſent object of his attention. In coaſting along the ſouthern ſhore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of iſlands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. Theſe iſlands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactreſs, who was always uppermoſt in his memory. In the ſame voyage, Jamaica was diſcovered. But to ſo many difficulties was Columbus expoſed, on an unknown ſea, among rocks, ſhelves, and ſands, that he returned to Hiſpaniola without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterpriſe.

By the firſt ſucceſs of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but, by a continuance of the ſame ſucceſs, admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain ſet every ſpring in motion againſt him; and there is no difficulty in finding ſpecious grounds of accuſation againſt ſuch as are employed in the execution of an extenſive and complicated plan. An officer was diſpatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a ſpy and informer, and whoſe preſence plainly demonſtrated to Columbus the neceſſity of returning to Europe, in order to obviate the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to ſet out on a third expedition, ſtill more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He deſigned to ſtand to the ſouthward of the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly weſtward, that he might diſcover what opening that might afford to India, or what new iſlands, or what continent, might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and ſuffering numberleſs inconveniences from the exceſſive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured with a ſmart gale, and went before it ſeventeen days to the weſtward. At the end of this time, a ſeaman ſaw land, which was an iſland, on the coaſt of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having paſſed this iſland, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was ſurpriſed with an appearance he had never ſeen before: this was the frightful tumult

of the waves, occaſioned by a conflict between the tide of the ſea and the rapid current of the immenſe river Oronoco. But ſailing forward, he plainly diſcovered that they were in freſh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any iſland ſhould ſupply ſo vaſt a river, he began to ſuſpect he had diſcovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on the weſtward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this diſcovery, he yielded to the uneaſineſs and diſtreſſes of his crew, and bore away for Hiſpaniola. In the courſe of this diſcovery, Columbus landed at ſeveral places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the ſpirit of diſcovery ſpread itſelf widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wiſhed to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without poſſeſſing his abilities. The Portugueſe diſcovered Braſil, which makes at preſent the moſt valuable part of their poſſeſſions: Cabot, a native of Briſtol, diſcovered the north-eaſt coaſts, which afterwards compoſed the Britiſh empire in North America: and Amerigo Veſpuccio, a merchant of Florence, ſailed to the ſouthern continent of America, and, being a man of addreſs, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impoſed on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the firſt diſcoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the ſmalleſt mortifications to which this great man was compelled to ſubmit. For, ſuch were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after diſcovering the continent, and making ſettlements in the iſlands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one-half of the world known to the other; a glory ſo much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which diſfigured all the exploits of thoſe who came after him and accompliſhed the execution of his plan. He fully vindicated himſelf at court, was reſtored to favour, and undertook another voyage in which he ſuffered great fatigues. He returned to Spain, and died at Valladolid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. The ſucceeding governors of Cuba and Hiſpaniola endeavoured to purchaſe the ſame advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good ſenſe and humanity. Theſe iſlands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were ſituated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of perſuaſion, hurried them to acts of the moſt ſhocking violence and cruelty againſt thoſe unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treaſure. The ſlaughter once begun, they ſet no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hiſpaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Caſas, a witneſs of thoſe barbarous depopulations, ſays, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy ſavages, almoſt naked and unarmed, were purſued like deer into the foreſts, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-ſhot, or ſurpriſed and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only viſited the continent: from what they ſaw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a ſtill more valuable conqueſt. Fernando Cortez was diſpatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horſes, and a ſmall number of field-pieces. With this inconſiderable force, he propoſed to ſubdue the moſt powerful ſtate on the continent of America;

this was the empire of Mexico, rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians paſſionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whoſe fame in arms ſtruck terror into the neighbouring nations. Never hiſtory, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had ſubſiſted for ages; its inhabitants, it is ſaid, were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a poliſhed and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whoſe wiſdom is ſtill admired in this particular, that the year conſiſted nearly of 365 days. Their ſuperiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the ſure baſis of laws combined with religion, ſeemed to bid defiance to time itſelf. Mexico, the capital of the empire, ſituated in the middle of a ſpacious lake, was the nobleſt monument of American induſtry. It communicated with the continent by immenſe cauſeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of ſtone, its ſquares and market-places, the ſhops which glittered with gold and ſilver, and the ſumptuous palaces of Montezuma, ſome erected on columns of jaſper, and containing whatever was moſt rare, curious, or uſeful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it againſt the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with a feeble oppoſition from the nations along the coaſt of Mexico, who were terrified at their firſt appearance: the warlike animals on which the Spaniſh officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which iſſued from their hands, the wooden caſtles which had wafted them over the ocean, ſtruck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they ſpared neither age nor ſex, nothing ſacred or profane. At laſt, the inhabitants of Tlaſcala, and ſome other ſtates upon the coaſt, deſpairing of being able to oppoſe them, entered into their alliance, and joined arms with thoſe terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and, in his progreſs, diſcovered a volcano of ſulphur and ſalt-petre, whence he could ſupply himſelf with powder. Montezuma heard of his progreſs without daring to oppoſe it. This ſovereign is reported, by the boaſting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vaſſals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants armed with bows and arrows; and yet he dared not reſiſt a handful of Spaniards, aided by a few Americans whoſe allegiance would be ſhaken by the firſt reverſe of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spaniſh victories, which always marched before them.

By ſending a rich preſent of gold, which only excited the Spaniſh avarice, Montezuma haſtened the approach of the enemy. No oppoſition was made to their entry into his capital. A palace was ſet apart for Cortez and his companions, who were already treated as the maſters of the new world. He had good reaſon, however, to diſtruſt the affected politeneſs of this emperor, under which he ſuſpected ſome plot for his deſtruction to be concealed: but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindneſs, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was ſurrounded with artillery, the moſt terrible of all engines to the Americans. At laſt, a circumſtance took place which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hoſtilities. In order to ſecure a communication by ſea to receive the neceſſary reinforcements, he erected a fort, and left a ſmall garriſon behind him, at Vera Cruz, which has ſince become an emporium

of commerce between Europe and America. He underſtood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garriſon in his abſence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himſelf was privy to this violence, and had iſſued orders that the head of the ſlain Spaniard ſhould be carried through his provinces, to deſtroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in perſon to the emperor, attended by a few of his moſt experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez ſeemed extremely ready to believe him, though, at the ſame time, he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be perſuaded of it, unleſs he returned along with them to their reſidence; which would remove all jealouſy between the two nations. The ſucceſs of this interview ſhowed the ſuperiority of European addreſs. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and ſurrounded by his guards, gave himſelf up a priſoner, to be diſpoſed of according to the inclination of a few ſtrangers who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accompliſhed. The Americans had the higheſt reſpect, or rather ſuperſtitious veneration, for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and, at the ſame time from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his taſtes and paſſions, maintained the eaſy ſovereignty of Mexico by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their reſpect, Montezuma was the firſt to teach them more politeneſs. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards, Montezuma aſcended the battlements of his priſon, and harangued his Mexicans into order and ſubmiſſion. This farce continued a long time; but on one of theſe occaſions, when Montezuma was ſhamefully diſgracing his character, by juſtifying the enemies of his country, a ſtone, from an unknown hand, ſtruck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occaſioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who cooperated ſo ſtrongly with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who, from the beginning, diſcovered an implacable animoſity againſt the Spaniſh name. Under his conduct, the unhappy Mexicans ruſhed againſt thoſe very men, whom a little before they had offered to worſhip. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly eſtabliſhed to be expelled from Mexico.

The immenſe tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, beſides an amazing quantity of precious ſtones, a fifth part of which, diſtributed among his ſoldiers, ſtimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to periſh rather than part with ſo precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no ſmall efforts for independence; but all their valour, and deſpair itſelf, gave way before what they called the Spaniſh thunder. Guatimozin and the empreſs were taken priſoners. This was the prince who, when he lay ſtretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him diſcover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, ſaid to his high-prieſt condemned to the ſame puniſhment, and who loudly expreſſed his ſenſe of the pains that he endured, "Do you imagine I lie on a bed of roſes?" The high-prieſt remained ſilent, and died in an act of obedi-

ence to his ſovereign. Cortez, by getting a ſecond emperor into his hands, made a complete conqueſt of Mexico; with which the golden Caſtile, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his ſoldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they obtained intelligence of another great empire, ſituated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was ſaid to abound in gold and ſilver, and precious ſtones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America that deſerved the name of a civiliſed kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spaniſh government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, it did not chooſe to adventure on new enterpriſes, certain it is, that this extenſive country, more important than Mexico itſelf, was reduced by the endeavours and at the expenſe of three private perſons. The names of theſe were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a prieſt, but a man of conſiderable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the ſoul of the enterpriſe, could neither read nor write. They ſailed over into Spain, and, without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they ſhould conquer. Pizarro then ſet out for the conqueſt of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horſe, and 12 ſmall pieces of cannon, drawn by ſlaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the ſame prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spaniſh nation, and were, beſide, of a character ſtill more ſoft and unwarlike, it need not ſurpriſe us, after what has been ſaid of the conqueſt of Mexico, that, with this inconſiderable force, Pizarro ſhould make a deep impreſſion on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumſtances likewiſe which conſpired to aſſiſt him, and which, as they diſcover ſomewhat of the hiſtory, religion, and ſtate of the human mind, in this immenſe continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of thoſe uncommon men, who, calm and diſpaſſionate themſelves, can obſerve the paſſions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He obſerved that the people of Peru were naturally ſuperſtitious, and had a particular veneration for the Sun. He pretended therefore to be deſcended from that luminary, whoſe worſhip he was ſent to eſtabliſh, and whoſe authority he was entitled to bear. By this ſtory, romantic as it appears, he eaſily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his juriſdiction; a larger ſtill he ſubdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the moſt laudable purpoſes. He united and civiliſed the diſperſed barbarous people; he ſubjected them to laws, and trained them to arms; he ſoftened them by the inſtitution of a benevolent religion: in ſhort, there was no part of America where agriculture and the arts were ſo aſſiduouſly cultivated, and where the people were of ſuch mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes ſucceeded Mango, diſtinguiſhed by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as deſcendents of their great god, the Sun. The twelfth of theſe was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spaniſh Peru. To ſecure himſelf in the poſſeſſion, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this

marriage was ſprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Hueſcar, of a different mother, had claimed the ſucceſſion to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Hueſcar, as a priſoner, in the tower of Cuſco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed ſtate was the kingdom of Peru when Pizarro advanced to attack it. The ominous predictions of religion, too, as in moſt other caſes, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the ſubjection of the empire by unknown perſons, whoſe deſcription exactly correſponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In theſe circumſtances, Atabalipa, inſtead of oppoſing the Spaniards, ſet himſelf to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whoſe temper partook of the meanneſs of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with thoſe he called barbarians, but who, however, though leſs acquainted with the cruel art of deſtroying their fellow-creatures, were more civiliſed than himſelf. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previouſly inſtructed, furiouſly attacked the guards of that prince, and, having butchered 5000 of them, as they were preſſing forward, without regard to their particular ſafety, to defend the ſacred perſon of their monarch, ſeized Atabalipa himſelf, whom they carried off to the Spaniſh quarters. Pizarro, with the ſovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the maſter of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as ſtrongly attached to their emperor as were the Mexicans. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat for his ranſom. On this occaſion the ancient ornaments, amaſſed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treaſures of the moſt ſumptuous temples, were brought out to ſave him, who was the ſupport of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he propoſed, without releaſing the emperor, to get into his poſſeſſion an immenſe quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro cauſed ſome embarraſſment in his affairs. The friendſhip, or rather the external ſhow of friendſhip, between theſe men, was ſolely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterpriſing ſpirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling paſſion. When their intereſts, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any meaſures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the moſt conſiderable ſhare of the treaſure ariſing from the emperor's ranſom, becauſe he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro inſiſted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, leſt the common cauſe ſhould ſuffer by any rupture between them, this diſpoſition was agreed to. The ranſom was paid without delay, a ſum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000l. ſterling, and, conſidering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the ſhares of the chief commanders and other officers, each private ſoldier had above 2000l. Engliſh money. With ſuch fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be ſubjected to the rigours of military diſcipline. They inſiſted on being diſbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, ſenſible that avarice would ſtill detain a num-

ber in his army, and that thoſe who returned with ſuch magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to purſue the ſame plan for acquiring gold. Theſe wiſe reflections were abundantly verified; it was impoſſible to ſend out better recruiting officers than thoſe who had themſelves ſo much profited by the field; new ſoldiers conſtantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immenſe ranſom was only a further reaſon for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they diſcovered whether he had another treaſure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince from whom they expected no further advantage; or that Pizarro had conceived an averſion againſt the Peruvian emperor, on account of ſome inſtances of craft and duplicity which he obſerved in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs; it is certain, that, by his command, Atabalipa was put to death. To juſtify this cruel proceeding, a pretended charge was exhibited againſt the unhappy prince, in which he was accuſed of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumſtances of equal impertinence. The only juſt ground of accuſation againſt him was, that his brother, Hueſcar, had been put to death by his command; and even this was conſiderably palliated, becauſe Hueſcar had been plotting his deſtruction, that he might eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility ſet up the full brother of Hueſcar; Pizarro ſet up a ſon of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to eſtabliſh themſelves by the aſſiſtance of the army. Theſe diſtractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at preſent rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought againſt one another: their battles accuſtomed theſe harmleſs people to blood; and ſuch is the preference of a ſpirit of any kind raiſed in a nation to a total lethargy, that, in the courſe of thoſe quarrels among themſelves, the inhabitants of Peru aſſumed ſome courage againſt the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cauſe of all their calamities. The loſſes which the Spaniards met with in theſe quarrels, though inconſiderable in themſelves, were rendered dangerous, by leſſening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preſerve among the inhabitants of the new world. This conſideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and the interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city of Lima, and in ſettling the Spaniards in the country. But as ſoon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war againſt the Indians, and, after many difficulties, made himſelf maſter of Cuſco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in theſe conqueſts, new grants and ſupplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the ſea-coaſt, to the ſouthward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the ſouthward of Pizarro's government. This diviſion occaſioned a warm diſpute between them, each reckoning Cuſco within his own diſtrict; but the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He perſuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him lay to the ſouthward of Cuſco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as eaſily conquered as Peru. He offered him his aſſiſtance in the expedition, the ſucceſs of which he did not even call in queſtion.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of ſubduing a kingdom

for himſelf, liſtened to his advice; and, joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged neceſſary, he penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; loſing many of his men as he paſſed over mountains of an immenſe height, and always covered with ſnow. He reduced, however, a very conſiderable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war not to take advantage of the diviſion of the Spaniſh troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indiſpoſed, and Almagro removed at a diſtance, they were very nearly ſucceſsful. The latter, however, no ſooner got notice of the ſiege of Cuſco, than, relinquiſhing all views of diſtant conqueſts, he returned to ſecure the grand objects of their former labours. He raiſed the ſiege, with infinite ſlaughter of the aſſailants; but, having obtained poſſeſſion of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This diſpute occaſioned a long and bloody ſtruggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the reſentment fierce on both ſides, becauſe the fate of the vanquiſhed was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the ſecurity of a rival, in whoſe dangers and triumphs he had long ſhared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterpriſe, he had been intimately connected. During the courſe of this civil war, many Peruvians ſerved in the Spaniſh armies, and learned, from the practice of Chriſtians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable reſolution. They ſaw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguiſhable reſentment and avarice, and they conjectured that theſe paſſions would never permit their conteſts to ſubſide. Let us retire, ſaid they, from among them; let us fly to our mountains; they will ſpeedily deſtroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This reſolution was inſtantly put in practice; the Peruvians diſperſed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each ſide been exactly equal, this ſingular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with ſucceſs: but the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never ſince ventured to make head againſt the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now ſole maſter of the field, and of the richeſt empire in the world, was ſtill urged on by his ambition to undertake new enterpriſes. The ſouthern countries of America, into which he had ſome time before diſpatched Almagro, offered the richeſt conqueſt. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potoſi, compoſed of entire ſilver, had been diſcovered, the ſhell of which only remains at preſent. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, paſſed the Andes, and ſailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immenſe navigation, which diſcovered a rich and delightful country; but as it is moſtly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever ſince, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated ſucceſs, and having no ſuperior to control, no rival to keep him within bounds, now gave looſe reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the baſeſt tyranny and cruelty againſt all who had not concurred in his deſigns. This conduct raiſed a conſpiracy againſt him, to which he fell a ſacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himſelf had founded. The partiſans of

old Almagro now declared his ſon, of the ſame name, their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well ſatisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who ſent over Vaca di Caſtro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wiſdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the moſt advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother-country. By his prudent management, the mines of la Plata and Potoſi, which were formerly private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were ſilenced or cruſhed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, ſince the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was reſtored to Peru. It ſeems, however, that Caſtro had not been ſufficiently ſkilled in gaining the favour of the Spaniſh miniſtry by proper bribes or promiſes, which a miniſtry would always expect from the governor of ſo rich a country. By their advice a council was ſent over to control Caſtro, and the colony was again unſettled. The party ſpirit, but juſt extinguiſhed, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, ſet himſelf at the head of his brother's partiſans, with whom many new malcontents had united. It was now no longer a diſpute between governors about the bounds of their juriſdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal ſubmiſſion to the king. He ſtrengthened daily, and even went ſo far as to behead a governor who was ſent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spaniſh fleet in the South Seas, by whoſe means he propoſed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the ſituation of affairs, when the court of Spain, ſenſible of their miſtake in not ſending into America men whoſe character and virtue only, and not opportunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, diſpatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gaſca, a man differing from Caſtro only by being of a more mild and inſinuating behaviour, but with the ſame love of juſtice, the ſame greatneſs of ſoul, and the ſame diſintereſted ſpirit. All thoſe who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt flocked to his ſtandard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gaſca, forſook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by inſinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himſelf offered a full indemnity, provided he would return to the allegiance of the Spaniſh crown. But ſo intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than ſubmit to any officer of Spain. With thoſe of his partiſans, therefore, who ſtill continued to adhere to his intereſt, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered, and taken priſoner. His execution followed ſoon after; and thus the brother of him who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a ſacrifice for the ſecurity of the Spaniſh dominion over that country.

The conqueſt of the great empires of Mexico and Peru is the only part of the American hiſtory which deſerves to be treated under the preſent head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent or of the iſlands, if it contains either inſtruction or entertainment, ſhall be recorded under theſe particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever compoſes the character of the natives of America; and as theſe are extremely ſimilar all over this part of the globe, we ſhall ſpeak of them

in general, in order to ſave continual repetitions, noticing at the ſame time, when we enter upon the deſcription of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

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## Of the Original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE diſcovery of America has not only opened a new ſource of wealth to the buſy and commercial part of Europe, but an extenſive field of ſpeculation to the philoſopher who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and obſerve the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human underſtanding, when untutored by ſcience, or untainted by corruption. So ſtriking ſeemed the diſparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that ſome ſpeculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impoſſible they ſhould be of the ſame ſpecies, or derived from one common ſource. This concluſion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the neceſſaries of life, the force of cuſtom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumſtances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be diſcovered among them all, notwithſtanding the various ſhades which characteriſe nations, and diſtinguiſh them from each other.

When the thirſt of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immerſed in what they called barbariſm, but which, however, was a ſtate of honeſt independence, and noble ſimplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively ſpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almoſt every European art; even agriculture itſelf, the moſt uſeful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very ſparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the neceſſaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and foreſts ſupplied in great abundance. This exerciſe, which among them is a moſt ſerious occupation, gives a ſtrength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The ſame cauſe, perhaps, renders their bodies, in general, where the rays of the ſun are not too violent, uncommonly ſtraight and well-proportioned. Their muſcles are firm and ſtrong; their bodies and heads flattiſh, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as ſtrong as that of a horſe. The colour of their ſkin is a reddiſh-brown, admired among them, and heightened by the conſtant uſe of bear's fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumſtances and way of life. A people who are conſtantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious ſubſiſtence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be ſuppoſed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or high flow of ſpirits. The Indians, therefore, are, in general, grave even to ſadneſs; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to ſome nations in Europe, and they deſpiſe it. Their behaviour to thoſe about them is regular, modeſt, and reſpectful. Ignorant of the arts of amuſe-

ment, of which that of ſaying trifles agreeably is one of the moſt conſiderable, they never ſpeak but when they have ſomething important to obſerve; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with ſome meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almoſt continually engaged in purſuits which to them are of the higheſt importance. Their ſubſiſtence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be loſt by the ſmalleſt inattention to the deſigns of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the neceſſaries of life in greateſt abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are, for the ſame reaſon, extremely ſmall, when compared with civiliſed ſocieties, in which induſtry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vaſt number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders uſeful to one another. Theſe ſmall tribes live at an immenſe diſtance; they are ſeparated by a deſert frontier, and hid in the boſom of impenetrable and almoſt boundleſs foreſts.

There is eſtabliſhed in each ſociety a certain ſpecies of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation; becauſe over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly ſimilar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great inſtruments of ſubjection in poliſhed ſocieties, an American has no method by which he can render himſelf conſiderable among his companions, but by a ſuperiority in perſonal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very laviſh in her perſonal diſtinctions, where all enjoy the ſame education, all are nearly equal, and will deſire to remain ſo. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing paſſion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this ſentiment, is better ſecured than by the wiſeſt political regulations. They are very far, however, from deſpiſing all ſorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wiſdom, which experience has conferred on the aged; and they enliſt under the banners of the chief, in whoſe valour and military addreſs they have learned to repoſe their confidence. In every ſociety, therefore, there is to be conſidered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a ſpecies of ariſtocracy. Among thoſe tribes which are moſt engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, becauſe the idea of having a military leader was the firſt ſource of his ſuperiority, and, the continual exigencies of the ſtate requiring ſuch a leader, will continue to ſupport and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather perſuaſive than coercive: he is reverenced as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice; and one act of ill-judged violence would deprive him of the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be conſidered as an ariſtocracy, have no more power. In ſome tribes, indeed, there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whoſe influence being conſtantly augmented by time is more conſiderable. But this ſource of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In moſt countries, therefore, age alone is ſufficient for acquiring reſpect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only ſource of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among the Indians, buſineſs is conducted with the

utmoſt ſimplicity, and ſuch as may recall to thoſe who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the moſt early ages. The heads of families meet together in a houſe or cabin appointed for the purpoſe. Here the buſineſs is diſcuſſed, and here thoſe of the nation diſtinguiſhed for their eloquence or wiſdom have an opportunity of diſplaying thoſe talents. Their orators, like thoſe of Homer, expreſs themſelves in a bold figurative ſtyle, ſtronger than refined or rather ſoftened nations can well bear, and with geſtures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expreſſive. When the buſineſs is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feaſt upon the occaſion, of which almoſt the whole nation partakes. The feaſt is accompanied with a ſong, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like thoſe of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their muſic and dancing accompany every feaſt.

It often happens, that thoſe different tribes or nations, ſcattered as they are at an immenſe diſtance from one another, meet in their excurſions after prey. If there ſubſiſts no animoſity between them, which ſeldom is the caſe, they behave in the moſt friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a ſtate of war, or if there has been no previous intercourſe between them, all who are not friends being deemed enemies, they fight with the moſt ſavage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they uſe, it is left to the women. Their moſt common motive for entering into a war, when it does not ariſe from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themſelves for the death of ſome loſt friend, or to acquire priſoners, who may aſſiſt them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their ſociety. Theſe wars are either undertaken by ſome private adventurers, or at the inſtance of the whole community. In the latter caſe, all the young men who are diſpoſed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a piece of wood to the chief, as a token of their deſign to accompany him: for every thing among theſe people is tranſacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief who is to conduct them faſts ſeveral days, during which he converſes with no one, and is particularly careful to obſerve his dreams, which the preſumption natural to ſavages generally renders as favourable as he could deſire. A variety of other ſuperſtitions and ceremonies are obſerved. One of the moſt hideous is ſetting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which among ſome nations muſt formerly have been the caſe, ſince they ſtill continue to expreſs it in clear terms, and uſe an emblem ſignificant of the ancient uſage. Then they diſpatch a porcelane, or large ſhell, to their allies, inviting them to come along and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

> "A generous friendſhip no cold medium knows,
> "Burns with one love, with one reſentment glows."

They think that thoſe in their alliance muſt not only adopt their enmities, but have their reſentment wound up to the ſame pitch with themſelves. And, indeed, no people carry their friendſhips or their reſentments ſo far as they do: and this is what ſhould be expected from their peculiar circumſtances; that principle in human nature, which is the

ſpring of the ſocial affections, acts with ſo much the greater force the more it is reſtrained. The Americans, who live in ſmall ſocieties, who ſee few objects and few perſons, become wonderfully attached to theſe objects and perſons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themſelves miſerable. Their ideas are too confined, their breaſts are too narrow to entertain the ſentiment of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumſtance, while it makes them cruel to an incredible degree towards thoſe with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendſhips, and to the common tie which unites the members of the ſame tribe, or thoſe different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, ſome facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder, without informing our reaſon, and we ſhould be bewildered in a number of particulars ſeemingly oppoſite to one another, without being ſenſible of the general cauſe from which they proceed.

Having finiſhed all the ceremonies previous to the war, they iſſue forth, with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with ſtreaks of vermilion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and diſpoſe of all their finery to the women, who accompany them a conſiderable diſtance, to receive thoſe laſt tokens of eternal friendſhip.

The great qualities in an Indian warrior are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurpriſe; and indeed in theſe they are ſuperior to all nations in the world. Accuſtomed to continual wandering in the foreſts, having their perceptions ſharpened by keen neceſſity, and living in every reſpect according to nature, their external ſenſes have a degree of acuteneſs which at firſt appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immenſe diſtance, by the ſmoke of their fires, which they ſmell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and diſtinguiſh with the utmoſt facility. They even diſtinguiſh the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the preciſe time when they paſſed, where an European could not, with all his glaſſes, diſtinguiſh footſteps at all. Theſe circumſtances, however, give them no ſuperiority, becauſe their enemies are equally ſkilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making uſe of any thing by which they might run the danger of a diſcovery. They light no fire to warm themſelves, or to prepare their victuals; they lie cloſe to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that cloſes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refreſh themſelves, ſcouts are ſent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they ſuſpect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, maſſacre all the children, women, and helpleſs old men, or make priſoners of as many as they can manage, or have ſtrength enough to be uſeful to their nation. But when the enemy is appriſed of their deſign, and coming on in arms againſt them, they throw themſelves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to reſemble. Then they allow a part to paſs unmoleſted; when all at once, with a tremendous ſhout, riſing upfrom their ambuſh, they pour a ſtorm of muſquet-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the ſame cry. Every one ſhelters himſelf with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party, as ſoon as they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give a ſecond fire. Thus

does the battle continue until the one party is ſo much weakened as to be incapable of further reſiſtance. But if the force on each ſide continues nearly equal, the fierce ſpirit of the ſavages, inflamed by the loſs of their friends, can no longer be reſtrained. They abandon their diſtant war, they ruſh upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and inſulting their enemies with the bittereſt reproaches. A cruel combat enſues: death appears in a thouſand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civiliſed nations to behold, but which rouſe the fury of ſavages. They trample, they inſult over the dead bodies, tearing the ſcalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beaſts, and ſometimes devouring their fleſh. The flame rages on till it meets with no reſiſtance; then the priſoners are ſecured, thoſe unhappy men, whoſe fate is a thouſand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors ſet up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have loſt. They approach, in a melancholy and ſevere gloom, to their own village; a meſſenger is ſent to announce their arrival; and the women, with frightful ſhrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their huſbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice, to the elders, a circumſtantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people; and, as he mentions the names of thoſe who have fallen, the ſhrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in theſe cries, according as each is moſt connected with the deceaſed by blood or friendſhip. The laſt ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and, by an unaccountable tranſition, they paſs in a moment from the bitterneſs of ſorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the priſoners, whoſe fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characteriſes the ſavages.

We have already mentioned the ſtrength of their affections or reſentments. United as they are in ſmall ſocieties, connected within themſelves by the firmeſt ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the moſt intenſe warmth within the walls of their own village, ſeldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their reſentment is eaſily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the ſame tribe. The priſoners, who have themſelves the ſame feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The perſon who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the diſtribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to ſupply the loſs of a citizen. If thoſe who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occaſion for him, or their reſentment for the loſs of their friends be too high to endure the ſight of any connected with thoſe who were concerned in it, they ſentence him to death. All thoſe who have met with the ſame ſevere ſentence being collected, the whole nation is aſſembled at the execution, as for ſome great ſolemnity. A ſcaffold is erected, and the priſoners are tied to the ſtake, where they commence their death-ſong, and prepare for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with the moſt undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other ſide, are determined to put it to the proof, by the moſt refined and exquiſite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the fleſh

with his teeth; a third thrufts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe, made red hot, which he fmokes like tobacco; then they pound the toes and fingers to pieces between two ftones; they pull off the flefh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gafhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they fear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately: they pull off this flefh. thus mangled and roafted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedinefs, and fmearing their faces with the blood in an enthufiafm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flefh, they twift the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and fnapping them, whilft others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increafe the torment. This continues often five or fix hours; and fometimes, fuch is the ftrength of the favages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they fhall inflict, and to refrefh the ftrength of the fufferer, who, wearied out with fuch a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls into fo profound a fleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his fufferings. He is again faftened to the ftake, and again they renew their cruelty; they ftick him all over with fmall matches of wood, that eafily takes fire, but burns flowly; they continually run fharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruft out his eyes; and laftly, after having burned his flefh from the bones with flow fires; after having fo mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in fuch a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the fkin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked fkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and ftaggering with pain and weakneſs, aſſaulted and pelted upon every fide with clubs and ftones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compaffion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is fucceeded by a feaft as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into fomething worfe than Furies, even outdo the men in this fcence of horror; while the principal perfons of the country fit round the ftake, fmoking, and looking on without the leaft emotion. What is moft extraordinary, the fufferer himfelf, in the little intervals of his torments, fmokes too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt, which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt above human: not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs of rage and fury, he continues his inſults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwiſe, as it would be for any European to ſuffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the ſavage in the faces of his tormentors,

*I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; thoſe who fear them are cowards; they are leſs than women; life is nothing to thoſe that have courage; may my enemies be confounded with deſpair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the laſt drop!*

Nothing in the hiſtory of mankind forms a ſtronger contraſt than this cruelty of the ſavages towards thoſe with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who conſiſt of all thoſe who live in the ſame village, or are are in alliance with it; among theſe all things are common; and this, though it may in part ariſe from their not poſſeſſing very diſtinct notions of ſeparate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the ſtrength of their attachment; becauſe in every thing elſe, with their lives as well as their fortunes they are ready to ſerve their friends. Their houſes, their proviſions, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. Has any one of theſe ſucceeded ill in his hunting—has his harveſt failed—or is his houſe burned,—he feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens: but to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended him, the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled until, by ſome treachery or ſurpriſe, he has an opportunity of executing a horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object: he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſerts for ſeveral hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirſt, with patience and cheerfulneſs, in hopes of ſurpriſing his enemy, on whom he exerciſes the moſt ſhocking barbarities, even to the eating of his fleſh. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed, in general, is the character of all ſtrong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have ſaid reſpecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit obſerving the force of their friendſhip, which principally appears by the treatment of the dead. When any one of the ſociety is cut off, he is lamented by the whole; on this occaſion a thouſand ceremonies are practiſed, denoting the moſt lively ſorrow. Of theſe, the moſt remarkable, as it diſcovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order: and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmoſt pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be preſent and to join in the ſolemnity. At this time, all who have died ſince the laſt ſolemn occaſion (which is renewed every ten years among ſome tribes, and every eight among others) are taken out of their graves: thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages are diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcaſſes.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general diſinterment. I cannot deſcribe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the moſt authentic account of thoſe nations.

Without queſtion, ſays he, the opening of theſe tombs diſplays one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human miſery, in death, which appears in a thouſand various ſhapes of horror in the ſeveral carcaſſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked

them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones; ſome look as if they were baked and ſmoked, without any appearance of rottenneſs; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction; while others are all ſwarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſhocking a ſight, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deſerves our admiration more, than that eager diligence and attention with which they diſcharge this melancholy duty of their tenderneſs, gathering up carefully even the ſmalleſt bones; handling the carcaſſes, diſguſtful as they are with every thing loathſome, cleanſing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their ſhoulders, through tireſome journeys of ſeveral days, without being diſcouraged from the offenſiveneſs of the ſmell, and without ſuffering any other emotions to ariſe than thoſe of regret for having loſt perſons who were ſo dear to them in their lives, and ſo lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feaſt in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourſes which took place between them and their friends are piouſly called to mind. The ſtrangers, who have come ſometimes many hundred miles to be preſent on the occaſion, join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful ſhrieks, demonſtrate that they are pierced with the ſharpeſt ſorrow. The dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general re-interment. A great pit is dug in the ground; and thither, at a certain time, each perſon, attended by his family and friends, marches in ſolemn ſilence, bearing the dead body of a ſon, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or duſt of thoſe which were quite corrupted, are depoſited in the pit; when the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they poſſeſs moſt valuable is interred with the dead. The ſtrangers are not wanting in their generoſity, and confer thoſe preſents which they have brought along with them for the purpoſe. Then all preſent go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preſerve with the moſt religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and, over theſe, with bark, on which they throw ſtones, wood, and earth. Then taking the laſt farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the ſavages offer, as preſents to the dead, whatever they value moſt highly. This cuſtom, which is univerſal among them, ariſes from a rude notion of the immortality of the ſoul. They believe this doctrine moſt firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the ſoul is ſeparated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it ſtill continues to hover around it, and to require, and take delight in, the ſame things with which it formerly was pleaſed. After a certain time, however, it forſakes this dreary manſion, and departs far weſtward into the land of ſpirits. They have even gone ſo far as to make a diſtinction between the inhabitants of the other world; ſome, they imagine, particularly thoſe who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, poſſeſs a high degree of happineſs, have a place for hunting and fiſhing, which never fails, and enjoy all ſenſual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The ſouls of thoſe, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or ſlain in war, are extremely miſerable after death.

Their taſte for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a ſtrong bias to their religion. Areſkoui, or the god of bat-

tle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and, according as his diſpoſition is more or leſs favourable to them, they conclude they ſhall be more or leſs ſucceſsful. Some nations worſhip the ſun or moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the hiſtory of the gods; traditions which reſemble the Grecian fables, but which are ſtill more abſurd and inconſiſtent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and, except when they have ſome immediate occaſion for the aſſiſtance of their gods, they pay them no ſort of worſhip. Like all rude nations, however, they are ſtrongly addicted to ſuperſtition. They believe in the exiſtence of a number of good and bad genii, ſpirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happineſs or miſery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diſeaſes proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The miniſters of the genii are the jugglers, who are alſo the only phyſicians among the ſavages. Theſe jugglers are ſuppoſed to be inſpired by the good genii, moſt commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the aſſiſtance of the ſick, and are ſuppoſed to be informed by the genii whether their patients will recover, and in what manner they muſt be treated. But theſe ſpirits are extremely ſimple in their ſyſtem of phyſic, and in almoſt every diſeaſe direct the juggler to the ſame remedy. The patient is encloſed in a narrow cabin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well ſoaked with the warm vapour and his own ſweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him ſuddenly into the next river. This coarſe method, which coſts many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewiſe the uſe of ſome ſpecifics, of wonderful efficacy; and all the ſavages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of theſe remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are adminiſtered.

It ſhould be obſerved by the reader, that the particulars which have juſt been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteriſtics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America were very different. On the firſt appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their diſcoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemiſphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not only averſe to toil, but ſeemed incapable of it; and when rouſed by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they ſunk under taſks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with eaſe. This feebleneſs of conſtitution ſeemed almoſt univerſal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were alſo ſtruck with the ſmallneſs of their appetite for food. The conſtitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abſtinence of the moſt mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans inſatiably voracious; and they affirmed that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was ſufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very ſparing, ſo limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raiſed what was ſufficient for their own conſumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their induſtry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were eaſily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards ſettled in any diſtrict,

ſuch a ſmall addition of ſupernumerary mouths ſoon exhauſted their ſcanty ſtores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with thoſe of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, leſs vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle but daſtardly ſpirit, more enſlaved by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence.

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## A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

THIS great weſtern continent, frequently denominated the NEW WORLD, extends from the 80th degree north, to the 56th degree ſouth latitude; and, where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 136th degree of weſt longitude from London; ſtretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and its greateſt breadth 3690. It lies in both hemiſpheres, has two ſummers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is waſhed by the two great oceans. To the eaſtward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa; and to the weſt the Pacific, or Great South Sea, by which it is ſeparated from Aſia. By theſe ſeas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is compoſed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the ſouth, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a kind of iſthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, ſo extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only ſixty miles over. In the great gulf which is formed between the iſthmus and the northern and ſouthern continents, lie a multitude of iſlands, many of them large, moſt of them fertile, and denominated the Weſt Indies, in contradiſtinction to the countries and iſlands of Aſia beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the Eaſt Indies.

Before we proceed to treat of ſeparate countries in their order, it will be proper to take notice of thoſe mountains and rivers which diſdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For, though America, in general, be not a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world. In South America, the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the Pacific Ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe: extending from the Iſthmus of Darien to the Straits of Magellan, they divide the whole ſouthern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length; for, though in part within the torrid zone, they are conſtantly covered with ſnow. Chimborazo, the higheſt of the Andes, is 20,608 feet; of this about 2400 feet from the ſummit are always covered with ſnow. Carazon was aſcended by the French aſtronomers, and is ſaid to be 15,800 feet high. In North America, which is chiefly compoſed of gentle aſcents or level plains, we know of no conſiderable mountains, except thoſe towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, ſeparating them from Canada and Louiſiana, which we call the Apalachian or Alleganý mountains; if that may be conſidered as a mountain,

which upon one ſide is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the reſt of the country.

America is, without queſtion, that part of the globe which is beſt watered; and that not only for the ſupport of life, and all the purpoſes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourſe of each part with the others. In North America, thoſe vaſt tracts of country ſituated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immenſe and unknown diſtance from the ocean, are watered by inland ſeas, called the Lakes of Canada; which not only communicate with each other, but give riſe to ſeveral great rivers, particularly the Miſſiſſippi, running from north to ſouth till it falls into the Gulf of Mexico, after a courſe, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progreſs the vaſt tribute of the Illinois, the Miſouri, the Ohio, and other great rivers, ſcarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary courſe from the Miſſiſſippi, till it empties itſelf into the ocean near Newfoundland: all of them being almoſt navigable to their heads, lay open the inmoſt receſſes of this great continent, and afford ſuch an inlet for commerce, as muſt produce the greateſt advantage, whenever the country adjacent ſhall come to be fully inhabited by an induſtrious and civiliſed people. The eaſtern ſide of North America, beſides the noble rivers Hudſon, Delaware, Suſquehana, and Potowmack, ſupplies ſeveral others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of the ſettlements are ſo advantageouſly interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be ſaid to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if poſſible, in this reſpect even more fortunate. It ſupplies much the two largeſt rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate River. The firſt, riſing in Peru not far from the South Sea, paſſes from weſt to eaſt, and falls into the ocean between Braſil and Guiana, after a courſe of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata riſes in the heart of the country, and, having its ſtrength gradually augmented by an acceſſion of many powerful ſtreams, diſcharges itſelf with ſuch vehemence into the ſea, as to make its taſte freſh for many leagues from land. Beſides theſe, there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoko is the moſt conſiderable.

A country of ſuch vaſt extent on each ſide of the equator muſt neceſſarily have a variety of ſoils as well as climates. It is a treaſury of nature, producing moſt of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and ſilver of America have ſupplied Europe with ſuch immenſe quantities of thoſe valuable metals, that they are become vaſtly more common; ſo that the gold and ſilver of Europe now bear little proportion to the high price ſet upon them before the diſcovery of America.

This country alſo produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other valuable ſtones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewiſe to lower their value. To theſe, which are chiefly the production of Spaniſh America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of leſs price, are of much greater uſe, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the Britiſh empire in this part of the world. Of theſe are the plentiful ſupplies of cochi-

neal, indigo, anatto, log-wood, brafil, fuftic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate-nut; fugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balfams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jefuits' bark, mechoacan, faffafras, farfaparilla, caffia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the difcovery of America, we were either entire ftrangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Afia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoefe, who then engroffed the trade of the eaftern world.

This continent has alfo a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes; great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants: and fo fertile is the foil, that many exotic productions are nourifhed in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians ftill live in the quiet poffeffion of many large tracts, America, fo far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spanifh, Engliſh, and Portuguefe. The Spaniards, as they firft difcovered it, have the largeft and richeft portions, extending from New Mexico and Louifiana, in North America, to the Straits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brafil, which belongs to Portugal; for, though the French and Dutch have fome forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they fcarcely deferve to be confidered as proprietors of any part of the fouthern continent.

Next to Spain, the moft confiderable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the firft difcovery of that continent by Sebaftian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about fix years after the difcovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated folely to an ifland upon its coaft. It was a long time before we made an attempt to fettle in this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, firft fhowed the way, by planting a colony in the fouthern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his miftrefs, queen Elizabeth.

The French, from this period until the concluſion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually poffeffed, Canada and Louifiana, comprehending all that extenfive inland country, reaching from Hudfon's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the fame name, on the fouth; regions which all Europe could not people in the courfe of many ages. The multitude of iflands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided amongft the Spaniards, Engliſh, and French. The Dutch indeed poffefs three or four fmall iflands, which in any other hands would be of no conſequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deferve to be named among the proprietors of America. We fhall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudfon's Bay, with thofe vaft regions towards the pole, are little known.

## A ſummary View of the firſt Settlements of NORTH AMERICA.

| *Names of Places.* | *When ſettled.* | *By whom.* |
|---|---|---|
| Quebec ..... | 1608 | By the French. |
| Virginia June 10, .. | 1609 | By Lord de la War. |
| Newfoundland June | 1610 | By Governor John Guy. |
| New York, New Jerſey | about 1614 | By the Dutch. |
| Plymouth ..... | 1620 | By part of Mr. Robinſon's congregation. |
| New Hampſhire ... | 1623 | By a ſmall Engliſh colony, near the mouth of Piſcataqua river. |
| Delaware, Pennſylvania .. | 1627 | By the Swedes and Fins. |
| Maſſachuſetts Bay.. | 1628 | By Capt. John Endicot and Company. |
| Maryland ..... | 1633 | By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman-catholics. |
| Connecticut ..... | 1635 | By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river. |
| Rhode Iſland..... | 1635 | By Mr. Roger Williams, and his perſecuted brethren. |
| New Jerſey ..... | 1664 | Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II, and made a diſtinct government and ſettled ſome time before this by the Engliſh. |
| South Carolina .... | 1669 | By Governor Sale. |
| Pennſylvania ..... | 1682 | By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers. |
| North Carolina, about | 1728 | Erected into a ſeparate government, ſettled before by the Engliſh. |
| Georgia ..... | 1732 | By General Oglethorpe. |
| Kentucky ..... | 1773 | By Col. Daniel Boon. |
| Vermont..... | 1777 | By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England. |
| Territory NW. of Ohio River | 1787 | By the Ohio and other Companies |

## The Grand Diviſions of NORTH AMERICA.

| Colonies. | Len. | Brea. | Sq. Miles. | Chief Towns. | Diſt. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Britain..... | 850 | 750 | 318,750 | | | Great Britain |
| Province of Quebec | 600 | 200 | 100,000 | Quebec | | Ditto |
| New Scotland, New Brunſ. | 350 | 250 | 57,000 | Halifax, Shelburne | | Ditto |
| New England ... | 550 | 200 | 87,400 | Boſton | 2760 W. | United States |
| New York ..... | 300 | 150 | 24,000 | New York | | Ditto |

| Colonies. | Len. | Brea. | Sq. Miles. | Chief Towns. | Diſt. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Jerſey ..... | 160 | 60 | 10,000 | Perth Amboy | | United States |
| Pennſylvania ... | 300 | 240 | 15,000 | Philadelphia | | Ditto |
| Maryland..... | 140 | 135 | 12,000 | Annapolis | | Ditto |
| Virginia ..... | 750 | 240 | 80,000 | Williamſburg | | Ditto |
| North Carolina<br>South Carolina<br>Georgia ..... | 700 | 380 | 110,000 | Edenton<br>Charles-town<br>Savannah | | Ditto<br>Ditto<br>Ditto |
| Eaſt Florida<br>Weſt Florida | 500 | 440 | 100,000 | St. Auguſtine<br>Penſacola | | Spain<br>Ditto |
| Louiſiana ..... | 1200 | 645 | 516,000 | New Orléans | 4080 SW. | Ditto |
| New Mexico<br>& California | 2000 | 1000 | 600,000 | St. Fee<br>St. Juan | 4320 SW. | Ditto<br>Ditto |
| Mexico, or<br>New Spain | 2000 | 600 | 318,000 | Mexico | 4900 SW. | Ditto |

The Thirteen United States - - - - - - 238,000 Sq. Miles.

British Poſſeſſions in North America { Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunſwick } - 150,000

## Grand Diviſions of SOUTH AMERICA.

| Nations. | Len. | Brea. | Sq. Miles. | Chief Cities. | Diſt. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Terra Firma..... | 1400 | 700 | 700,000 | Panama | 4650 SW. | Spain |
| Peru..... | 1800 | 600 | 970,000 | Lima | 5520 SW. | Ditto |
| Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B | | | | | | |
| Guiana..... | 780 | 480 | 250,000 | Surinam<br>Cayenne | 3840 SW. | Dutch<br>French |
| Braſil..... | 2560 | 700 | 940,000 | St. Sebaſtian | 6000 SW. | Portugal |
| Parag. or LaPlata | 1500 | 1000 | 1,000,000 | Buenos Ayres | 6040 SW. | Spain |
| Chili..... | 1200 | 500 | 206,000 | St. Jago | 6600 SW. | Spain |
| Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia | 1400 | 460 | 325,000 | The Spaniards took poſſeſſion of it, but did not think it worth while to ſettle there. | | |

The principal Iſlands of North America belonging to Europeans, are

| | Islands. | Length. | Breadth. | Square Miles. | Chief Towns. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| In the Gulf of St. Laur. | Newfoundland | 350 | 200 | 35,500 | Placentia | Great Brit. |
| | Cape Breton | 110 | 80 | 4,000 | Louiſbourg | Ditto |
| | St. John's | 60 | 30 | 500 | Charles-town | Ditto |
| In the Atlan. | The Bermuda Iſles | 20,000 acres | | 40 | St. George | Ditto |
| | The Bahama ditto | very numerous | | | Naſſau | Ditto |
| West India Iſlands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America. | Jamaica | 140 | 60 | 6,000 | Kingſton | Ditto |
| | Barbadoes | 21 | 14 | 140 | Bridgetown | Ditto |
| | St. Chriſtopher | 20 | 7 | 80 | Baſſe-terre | Ditto |
| | Antigua | 20 | 20 | 100 | St. John's | Ditto |
| | Nevis | each of theſe is 18 circum. | | | Charles-town | Ditto |
| | Monteſerrat | | | | Plymouth | Ditto |
| | Barbuda | 20 | 12 | 60 | | Ditto |
| | Anguilla | 30 | 10 | 60 | | Ditto |
| | Dominica | 28 | 13 | 150 | Rouſſeau | Ditto |
| | St. Vincent | 24 | 18 | 150 | Kingſton | Ditto |
| | Granada | 30 | 15 | 150 | St. George's | Ditto |
| | Tobago | 32 | 9 | 108 | | France |
| | Cuba | 700 | 90 | 38,400 | Havannah | Spain |
| | Hiſpaniola | 450 | 150 | 36,000 | St. Domingo | D° & Fran. |
| | Porto Rico | 100 | 49 | 3,200 | Porto Rico | Spain |
| | Trinidad | 90 | 60 | 2,897 | St. Joſeph | Ditto |
| | Margarita | 40 | 24 | 624 | | Ditto |
| | Martinico | 60 | 30 | 300 | St. Peter's | France * |
| | Guadaloupe | 45 | 38 | 250 | Baſſe-terre | Ditto * |
| | St. Lucia | 23 | 12 | 90 | | Ditto * |
| | St. Bartholomew | all of them inconſiderable. | | | | Ditto † |
| | Deſeada | | | | | Ditto |
| | Marigalanta | | | | | Ditto |
| | St. Euſtatia | 29 | circum. | | The Bay | Dutch |
| | Caraffou | 30 | 10 | 342 | | Ditto |
| | St. Thomas | 15 | circum. | | | Denmark |
| | St. Croix | 30 | 10 | | Baſſe End | Ditto |

In the Iſlands in NORTH AMERICA, and the WEST INDIES, are 230 ſquare miles.

* In the preſent war with France (1796) ſome of theſe iſlands, and parts of others, have repeatedly changed their maſters, but as the events of war are uncertain, it is impoſſible to aſcertain with any preciſion to whom they belong, until the termination of hoſtilities.

† Lately ceded to Sweden by France.

Plate XXIII.

# BRITISH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA from the best AUTHORITIES.

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree.

30 100 200 300 400

NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN

NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN

ASIA

AMERICA

BAFFINS BAY

HUDSONS BAY

TERRITORY

UNITED STATES

NEW FOUND LAND

Sir Thos. Smith's Sound

Alderman Jones's Sound

Sir Ja. Lancaster's Sd.

Hudsons Straits

Cumberland's Strait

Frobisher's Strait

Davis's Inlet

Labrador Coast

Cook's River

Prince of Wales

Arctic Circle

Mountain Indians

Dog Ribbed Indians

Beaver Indians

Chepawayan Indians

Copper Mine Indians

Hare Indians

Stone Indians

Snake Indians

Dorge Indians

Nehethaney Indians

Assiniboils

Knisteneaux

Mississi

Missouri

Yellow R.

Red R.

Saskatchewan R.

Peace R.

Athapescow L.

Slave L.

Bear Lake R.

Buffalo L.

Lake of the Woods

Lake Superior

Lake Michigan

Lake Champlain

Lake Ontario

Hudsons Bay

Repulse Bay

Southampton I.

Mansfield I.

Resolution I.

Nottingham I.

Salisbury I.

Digges I.

Akpatok I.

Disco I.

Newfoundland

Cape Breton

Prince Edwards I.

Anticosti

Gulf of St. Lawrence

Bay of Fundy

Nova Scotia

New Brunswick

Canada

Labrador

Esquimaux

Greenland

Published Nov.ber 1.1797 by C.Dilly & C.G. & J.Robinson, London.

Plate XVIII.

# A General MAP of NORTH AMERICA from the best AUTHORITIES.

NORTH AMERICA

ASIA

PACIFIC OCEAN

ATLANTIC OCEAN

NORTH OCEAN

BAFFINS BAY

GREENLAND

DAVIS STRAIT

HUDSONS BAY

LABRADOR

CANADA

UNITED STATES

MEXICO

CALIFORNIA

GULF of CALIFORNIA

GULF of MEXICO

CARIBBEAN SEA

BAHAMA Is.

Arctic Circle

Tropic of Cancer

Longitude West 130 from London

Plate XXV.

# THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, according to the Treaty of Peace of 1784.

References to the States.

1. Vermont.
2. New Hampshire.
3. Massachusetts Bay.
4. Rhode Island.
5. Connecticut.
6. New York.
7. New Jersey.
8. Pennsylvania.
9. Delaware.
10. Maryland.
11. Virginia.
12. Kentucky.
13. North Carolina.
14. South Carolina.
15. Georgia.

Mouths of the Mississippi 90 85 80 75 Longitude West from London 70

# BRITISH AMERICA,

## NEW BRITAIN.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 850<br>Breadth 750 | between | 50 and 70 North lat.<br>50 and 100 Weſt lon. | 318,750. |

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudſon's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands and frozen ſeas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean on the Eaſt; by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada on the South; and by unknown lands on the Weſt.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the North, their being covered with eternal ſnow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occaſion a degree of cold in the winter over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the ſame latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are numerous, and take their names generally from the Engliſh navigators and commanders by whom they were firſt diſcovered. The principal bay is that of Hudſon, and the principal ſtraits are thoſe of Hudſon, Davis, and Belleiſle; and the chief rivers are the Mooſe, Severn, Rupert, Nelſon, and Black River.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren. To the northward of Hudſon's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is ſeen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth has been ſuppoſed incapable of any better production than ſome miſerable ſhrubs. Every kind of European ſeed committed to the earth in this inhoſpitable climate has hitherto periſhed; but perhaps the ſeed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway would be more ſuitable to the ſoil. All this ſeverity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenneſs of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-two; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are the mooſe-deer, ſtags, rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geeſe, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelſon, in one ſeaſon, ninety thouſand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thouſand hares.

All the animals of theſe countries are clothed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals. When that ſeaſon is over, which holds only

for three months, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow: every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a ſurpriſing phænomenon; but it is yet more ſurpriſing, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally.

Before we advance further in the deſcription of America, it may be proper to obſerve in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are leſs than thoſe of the old; even ſuch as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never ſeen to improve. If, with reſpect to ſize, we ſhould compare the animals of the new and the old world, we ſhall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Aſiatic elephant, for inſtance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurettee, which is the largeſt native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which ſome alſo call the American camel, is ſtill leſs. Their beaſts of prey are quite diveſted of that courage which is ſo often fatal to man in Africa or Aſia. They have no lions, nor, properly ſpeaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed thoſe names to ſuch ravenous animals as are there found moſt to reſemble thoſe of the ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them are deſpicable, in compariſon of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Aſia. The tiger of Bengal has been known to meaſure ſix feet in length without including the tail; while the congar, or American tiger, as ſome affect to call it, ſeldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore, in the ſouthern parts of America, are different from thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but thoſe which, being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the ſtag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada as Ruſſia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tiger, which are natives of the ſouth with us, are utterly unknown in ſouthern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be ſmaller than thoſe of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wiſdom of the author of it, that the ſmalleſt animals multiply in the greateſt proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations becomes much leſs; but then it alſo becomes more prolific; and, inſtead of one kid at a time, or two at the moſt, generally produces five, ſix, and ſometimes more. The wiſdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious: had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the ſame degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would ſoon be unequal to the conteſt, and we ſhould ſoon perceive them to become the tyrants of thoſe who call themſelves the maſters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country ſhow great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themſelves, and in preſerving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every-where ſurrounds them for the greateſt part of the year: in other reſpects they are very ſavage. In their ſhapes and faces they do not reſemble the Americans who live to the ſouthward: they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeids of Europe already deſcribed.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of theſe northern

ſeas and countries was owing to a project ſtarted in England for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to China and the Eaſt Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of diſcovery it ſeems manifeſt, that no practicable paſſage ever can be found. Frobiſher only diſcovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coaſts, but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure; the firſt in 1607; the ſecond in 1608; and the third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtraits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtaid here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to purſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied, ſeized upon him, and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy ſeas in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip and the reſt of the men returned home.

Another attempt towards a diſcovery was made in 1746, by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as fifty-ſeven degrees and a half; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, as we have already obſerved, abound with animals whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not conſiſt of above nine or ten perſons, for the excluſive trade to this bay; and they have acted under it ever ſince, with great benefit to the private men who compoſe the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſted ſpirit has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint. The company employ but four ſhips and 130 ſeamen. They have ſeveral forts; viz. Prince of Wales, Churchill, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay, and are garriſoned by 186 men. The French attacked, took, and made ſome depredations on them the laſt war, it was ſaid, to the amount of 400,000l. They export commodities to the value of 10,000l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3,734l. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's Bay. This commerce, ſmall as it is, affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their ſkins and furs are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch things are ſent of which we have the greateſt plenty, and which, in the mercantile phraſe, are drugs with us. Though the workmanſhip may happen to be in many reſpects ſo deficient, that no civiliſed people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the ſkins and furs we bring from Hudſon's Bay enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe to great advantage.

# CANADA, OR THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 600<br>Breadth 200 | between | 61 and 81 Weſt longitude.<br>45 and 52 North latitude. | 100,000. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New-Britain and Hudſon's Bay, on the North and Eaſt; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the South; and by unknown lands on the Weſt.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much further from the ſea, and more northerly than a great part of theſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter; though the air is generally clear; but, like moſt of thoſe American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the ſummers are very hot, and exceedingly pleaſant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleaſant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other ſorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco in particular thrives well, and is much cultivated. The iſle of Orléans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richneſs of their ſoil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of Britiſh America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almoſt all the different ſpecies of wood and animals that are found in theſe provinces, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them here at ſome length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greateſt foreſts in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itſelf. Nothing is more magnificent to the ſight; the trees loſe themſelves in the clouds; and there is ſuch a prodigious variety of ſpecies, that even among thoſe perſons who have taken moſt pains to deſcribe them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are deſcribing produces, amongſt others, two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and the female maple; three ſorts of aſh trees, the free, the mungrel, and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech trees and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty perſons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and daub over the ſeams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of theſe canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are alſo found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infuſed in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called ala-co, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow ſeveral tufts of

flowers, which, when ſhaken in the morning before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into ſugar, the ſeed being a pod containing a very fine kind of cotton; the ſun-plant, which reſembles a marigold, and grows to the height of ſeven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in ſome of the mountains, we are told, ſilver has been found. This country alſo abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John, Seguinay, Deſpraires, and Trois Rivières, but they are all ſwallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river iſſues from the Lake Ontario, and, taking its courſe north-eaſt, waſhes Montréal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile iſlands. It continues the ſame courſe, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the ſea, where it is navigable for large veſſels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the ſea, it becomes broad, and ſo deep, that ſhips of the line contributed, in the war before the laſt, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progreſs innumerable ſtreams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Roſiéres, where it is ninety miles broad, and where the cold is intenſe, and the ſea boiſterous. In its progreſs it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands; many of them are fruitful, and extremely pleaſant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which the French (now ſubjects of Great Britain) have ſettlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is not improbable that Canada, and thoſe vaſt regions to the weſt, will be enabled of themſelves to carry on a conſiderable trade upon the great lakes of freſh water which theſe countries environ. Here are five lakes, the ſmalleſt of which is a piece of ſweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the Lake Ontario, which is not leſs than 200 leagues in circumference. Erie, or Oſwego, longer, but not ſo broad, is about the ſame extent. That of the Huron ſpreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not leſs than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like Lake Erie, it is rather long, and comparatively narrow. But the Lake Superior, which contains ſeveral large iſlands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of theſe are navigable by any veſſels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the paſſage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a ſtupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock croſſes it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can expreſs the conſternation of travellers at ſeeing ſo great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from ſo great a height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as ſnow, being all converted into foam, through thoſe violent agitations. The noiſe of this fall is often heard at the diſtance of fifteen miles, and ſometimes much further. The vapour ariſing from the fall may ſometimes be ſeen at a great diſtance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of ſmoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the ſun and the poſition of the traveller favour. Many beaſts and fowls here loſe their lives, by attempting to ſwim, or croſs the ſtream in the rapids above the fall, and are found daſhed in pieces below; and ſome-

times the Indians, through careleſſneſs or drunkenneſs, have met with the ſame fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by ſuch a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already obſerved, is the outlet of theſe lakes, by which they diſcharge themſelves into the ocean. The French, when in poſſeſſion of the province, built forts at the ſeveral ſtraits by which theſe lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the laſt of them communicates with the river. By theſe they effectually ſecured to themſelves the trade of the lakes, and an influence over all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] Theſe make the moſt curious, and hitherto the moſt intereſting part of the natural hiſtory of Canada. It is to the ſpoils of theſe that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and moſt of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been deſcribing. The animals that find ſhelter and nouriſhment in the immenſe foreſts of Canada, and which indeed traverſe the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weaſels, ſquirrels of a large ſize and grayiſh hue, hares, and rabbits. The ſouthern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c The marſhes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, ſwarm with otters, beavers, or caſtors, of which the white are highly valued, being ſcarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though reſembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the moſt curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs ſixty or ſeventy pounds: they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The ſavages, who wage a continual war with this animal, believe it to be a rational creature, that it lived in ſociety, and was governed by a leader reſembling their own ſachem, or prince.—It muſt indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation provides food to ſerve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and ſeverity of it, are ſufficient to ſhow the near approaches of inſtinct to reaſon, and even in ſome inſtances the ſuperiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and ſtraw colour: but it is obſerved, that the lighter their colour, the leſs quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the ſkin before it is applied to any uſe; the green are the furs that are worn, after being ſewed to one another, by the Indians, who beſmear them with unctuous ſubſtances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and Engliſh have of late found the ſecret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and ſtockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Beſides the fur, this uſeful animal produces the true caſtoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the teſticles: the value of this drug is well known. The fleſh of the beaver is a moſt delicious food, but when boiled it has a diſagreeable reliſh.

The muſk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver (weighing about five or ſix pounds), which it reſembles in every thing but its tail; and affords a very ſtrong muſk.

The elk is of the ſize of a horſe or mule. Its fleſh is very agreeable and nouriſhing, and its colour a mixture of light gray and dark red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no graſs, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he ſometimes ſprings furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him; and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to diſpatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail ſo long, that Charlevoix ſays he twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the ſnout to the tail. It is ſaid that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſt his ſtrong tail round his body, and tear his throat open in a moment.

The buffaloe is a kind of wild ox, of much the ſame appearance with thoſe of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly eſteemed. The fleſh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are as ſoft and pliable as chamois leather, but ſo very ſtrong, that the bucklers which the Indians make of them are hardly penetrable by a muſquet-ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domeſtic animal, but differs in no other reſpect from thoſe of Europe. Wolves are ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country. Their fleſh is white, and good to eat; they purſue their prey to the tops of the talleſt trees. The black foxes are greatly eſteemed, and very ſcarce; but thoſe of other colours are more common: and ſome on the Upper Miſſiſſippi are of a ſilver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon waterfowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thouſand antic tricks, and then ſpring up and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a moſt beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the ſmell of which is nauſeous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it ſprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the aſſailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful ſilver colour, with a buſhy tail, and twice as big as the European; the female carries under her belly a bag, which ſhe opens and ſhuts at pleaſure; and in that ſhe places her young when purſued. Here are three ſorts of ſquirrels; that called the flying ſquirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is eaſily tamed, and is very lively. The Canadian porcupine is leſs than a middling dog; when roaſted, he eats full as well as a ſucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from thoſe in Europe, only they turn gray in winter. There are two ſorts of bears here, one of a reddiſh, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the moſt dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unleſs when wounded or oppreſſed with hunger. They run themſelves very poor in the month of July, when it is ſomewhat dangerous to meet them: during the winter they remain in a kind of torpid ſtate. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater ſolemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed ſeveral in one day, is more eagerly ſought after than that of one who has rendered himſelf famous in war. The reaſon is, becauſe the chaſe ſupplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goſhawks, ter-

cols, partridges, gray, red, and black, with long tails, which they ſpread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance. Woodcocks are ſcarce in Canada, but ſnipes, and other water game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is ſaid by ſome writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, ſwallows, and larks; no leſs than twenty-two different ſpecies of ducks, and a great number of ſwans, turkeys, geeſe, buſtards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a diſtance from houſes. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thruſhes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very ſhowy, and remarkable for announcing the return of ſpring. The fly-bird, or humming-bird, is thought to be the moſt beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chafer, and he makes a noiſe with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-ſnake chiefly deſerves attention. Some of theſe are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is moſt remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is ſcaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is ſaid there grows every year one ring or row of ſcales; ſo that its age may be known by its tail, as we know that of a horſe by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noiſe, from which it takes its name. The bite of this ſerpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattle-ſnake herb, the root of which (ſuch is the goodneſs of Providence) is a certain antidote againſt the venom of this ſerpent, and that with the moſt ſimple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaſter to the wound. The rattle-ſnake ſeldom bites paſſengers, unleſs it is provoked; and never darts itſelf at any perſon without firſt rattling three times with its tail. When purſued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itſelf round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itſelf with great fury and violence againſt its purſuers; nevertheleſs, the ſavages chaſe it, and find its fleſh very good: it alſo poſſeſſes medicinal qualities.

Some writers are of opinion, that the fiſheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greateſt variety of fiſh of any in the world, and theſe in the greateſt plenty and of the beſt ſorts.

Beſides a great variety of other fiſh in the rivers and lakes, are ſea-wolves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, the ſea-plaiſe; ſalmon, trout, turtle, lobſters, the chaouraſon, ſturgeon, the achigau; the gilthead, tunny, ſhad, lamprey, ſmelts, conger-eels, mackarel, ſoals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The ſea-wolf, ſo called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largeſt is ſaid to weigh two thouſand pounds; their fleſh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning and currying of leather; their ſkins make excellent coverings for trunks, and, though not ſo fine as Morocco leather, they preſerve their freſhneſs better, and are leſs liable to cracks. The ſhoes and boots made of thoſe ſkins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and laſting covering for ſeats. The Canadian ſea-cow is larger than the ſea wolf, but reſembles it in figure: it hath two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoiſes of the river St. Laurence

are ſaid to yield a hogſhead of oil; and of their ſkins waiſtcoats are made, which are exceſſively ſtrong, and muſket proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle fiſh, quite round, or rather oval: there are three ſorts of them, which differ only in ſize; ſome being as large as a hogſhead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the laſt, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taſte and ſmell of a ſmall cod. The ſea-plaiſe is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaouraſon is an armed fiſh, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, reſembling a pike; it is covered with ſcales that are proof againſt a dagger; its colour is a ſilver gray; and there grows under its mouth a long bony ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. One may eaſily conceive, that an animal ſo well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few inſtances of fiſh making prey of the feathered creation, which this fiſh does, however, with much art. He conceals himſelf among the canes and reeds, in ſuch a manner that nothing is to be ſeen beſides his weapon, which he holds raiſed perpendicularly above the ſurface of the water; the fowls which come to take reſt, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no ſooner alighted, than the fiſh opens its throat, and makes ſuch a ſudden motion to ſeize his prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes him. This fiſh is an inhabitant of the lakes. The ſturgeon is both a freſh and ſalt-water fiſh, taken on the coaſt of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a ſmall kind of ſturgeon, the fleſh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fiſh peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from thoſe of the Nile.

INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vaſtly populous: but we cannot preciſely determine the number of French and Engliſh ſettled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increaſe. In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were ſuppoſed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants *. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almoſt innumerable; but theſe people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond. But as liberty is the ruling paſſion of the Indians, we may naturally ſuppoſe, that, as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more diſtant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houſes in both are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is defended by a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The number of inhabitants have been computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all on a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite the town, is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, that are raiſed

* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a conſus of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to 113,012 Engliſh and French, excluſive of 10,000 Loyalists, ſettled in the upper parts of the province.

25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montréal, which is about 170 miles, in ſailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places very bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way; ſeveral gentlemen's houſes, neatly built, ſhow themſelves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well-ſettled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters live wholly within themſelves. Many beautiful iſlands are interſperſed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After paſſing the Richelieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported to another climate; but this is to be underſtood of the ſummer months.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montréal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations of Indians, who, by means of theſe rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and ſkins. The country is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides of the rivers.

Montréal ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore. While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montréal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well, that the whole iſland was become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well-formed ſtreets; and when it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, the houſes were built in a very handſome manner; and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthernmoſt ſide of the river, as the hill, on the ſide of which the town ſtands, falls gradually to the water. The place is ſurrounded with a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. Montréal is nearly as large as Quebec; but ſince it fell into the hands of the Engliſh it has ſuffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to all their former rights and privileges.

In the year 1774, an act was paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain, for making more effectual proviſion for the government of the province of Quebec. By this it was enacted, that it ſhould be lawful for his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, by warrant under his or their ſignet or ſign manual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to conſtitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to conſiſt of ſuch perſons reſident there, not exceeding twenty-three, nor leſs than ſeventeen, as his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, ſhall be pleaſed to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or abſence of any of the members of the ſaid council, in like manner to conſtitute and

appoint others to ſucceed them. And this council, ſo appointed and nominated, or the majority of them, are veſted with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, with the conſent of the governor, or, in his abſence, of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. The council, however, are not empowered to lay taxes, except for the purpoſe of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or ſuch local conveniences. By this act, all matters of controverſy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to be continued in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are alſo allowed by this act not only to profeſs the Roman religion, but the popiſh clergy are inveſted with a right to claim and obtain their accuſtomed dues from thoſe of the ſame religion.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] The nature of the climate, ſeverely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, ſhows what Canada principally wants from Europe: wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarſe linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was poſſeſſed by the French, the Indians ſupplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and amongſt nations entirely unknown to us. Theſe again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpoſe, people from all parts, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montréal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. On this occaſion, many ſolemnities were obſerved, guards were placed, and the governors aſſiſted, to preſerve order, in ſuch a concourſe, and ſo great a variety of ſavage nations. But ſometimes great diſorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being ſo fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all that they were poſſeſſed of. It is remarkable that many of theſe nations actually paſſed by our ſettlement of Albany, in New York, and travelled 250 miles farther, to Montréal, though they might have purchaſed the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of theſe ſavages.

Since we became poſſeſſed of Canada, our trade with that country has been computed to employ about 60 ſhips and 1000 ſeamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng, ſnake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to 105,500l. Their imports from Great Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the ſame ſum. It is unneceſſary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only ſupplies us with unmanufactured materials, indiſpenſably neceſſary in many articles of our commerce, but alſo takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the productions of our other ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies *.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be hardly poſſible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural cauſes; principally the ſeverity of the winter, which

* The amount of the exports from this province in the year 1786 was £.343,268. Amount of imports the ſame year was £.325,116.

is ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over; and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep on the ground, even in thoſe parts of the country which lie three degrees ſouth of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience ariſes from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montréal, which render it difficult for very large ſhips to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but veſſels from 300 to 400 tons are not prevented by theſe falls from going there annually.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

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# NOVA SCOTIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 350 | between | 43 and 49 North latitude | 57,000 |
| Breadth | 250 | | 60 and 67 Weſt longitude | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence on the North; by the Gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic Ocean, Eaſt; by the ſame ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, Weſt. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*: the province and government now ſtyled NEW BRUNSWICK is bounded on the weſtward of the river Ste. Croix, by the ſaid river to its ſource, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the ſouthern boundary of the province of Quebec; to the northward by the ſame boundary as far as the weſtern extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the Eaſtward by the ſaid bay to the Gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte; to the ſouth by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river Ste. Croix aforeſaid, to the mouth of the Muſquat River; by the ſaid river to its ſource, and from thence by a due line acroſs the iſthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eaſtern lot above deſcribed, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Riſgouche and Nipiſiguit run from Weſt to Eaſt, and fall into the Bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and Ste. Croix, which run from North to South, fall into Fundy Bay, or the ſea a little to the eaſtward of it.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The ſeas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic Ocean, Fundy Bay, and the Gulf of St. Laurence. The leſſer bays are Chenigto and Green Bay upon the iſthmus, which join the north part of Nova Scotia to the ſouth, and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-eaſt; the bay of Chedibucto on the ſouth-eaſt; the bay of the iſlands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Proſper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Roſſignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the ſouth; port La Tour, on the ſouth-eaſt; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the ſouth ſide of Fundy Bay; and port Roſeway, now the moſt populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port; and Epis, on the Eaſt; Cape Forgeri, and Cape Canceau, on the ſouth-eaſt; Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape

La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the ſouth; Cape Sable and Cape Fourche on the ſouth-weſt.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European conſtitutions. They are wrapped up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intenſely cold; but though the cold in winter and the heat in ſummer are great, they come on gradually, ſo as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From ſuch an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, till lately, was almoſt a continued foreſt; and agriculture, though attempted by the Engliſh ſettlers, made little progreſs. In moſt parts, the ſoil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a ſhrivelled kind, like rye, and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpongy moſs. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninſula, to the ſouthward, which do not yield to the beſt land in New England, and, by the induſtry and exertions of the loyaliſts from the other provinces, are now cultivated, and likely to be fertile and flouriſhing. In general, the ſoil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ſhip-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new ſettlements and Bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land has been cleared, which abounds in timber; and ſhip-loads of good maſts and ſpars have been ſhipped from thence already.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the cloſe of March, the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. But the moſt valuable appendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coaſt, along which is one continued range of cod-fiſhing banks, navigable rivers, baſins, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. Notwithſtanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his ſecretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation, backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the Engliſh till the peace of Utrecht; and their deſign in acquiring it does not ſeem to have ſo much ariſen from any proſpect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehenſion that the French, by poſſeſſing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other ſettlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were tranſported, in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whoſe wiſdom and care we owe this ſettlement. The town of Halifax ſtands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with moſt parts of the province, either by land-carriage, the ſea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war

lies during the winter, and in ſummer puts to ſea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fiſhery. The town has an entrenchment, and is ſtrengthened with forts of timber. The other towns of leſs note are Annapolis Royal, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Bay of Fundy, and though but a ſmall place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the fineſt harbours in America, capable of containing a thouſand veſſels at anchor, in the utmoſt ſecurity. St. John's is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the Bay of Fundy, on the weſt ſide

Since the concluſion of the American war, the emigration of loyaliſts to this province from the United States has been very great: by them new towns have been raiſed; as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-ſide, and is ſaid to contain already 9000 inhabitants. Of the old ſettlements, the moſt flouriſhing and populous are Halifax, and the townſhips of Windſor, Norton, and Cornwallis, between Halifax and Annapolis. Of the new ſettlements, the moſt important are Shelburne, Parr-town, Digby, and New Edinburgh. Large tracts of land have been lately cultivated, and the province is now likely to advance in population and fertility.

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## UNITED STATES or AMERICA.

OF the riſe, progreſs, and moſt remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the eſtabliſhment of the United States of America, we have already given an account in our view of the principal tranſactions in the hiſtory of Great Britain. It was on the fourth of July, 1776, that the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the United Colonies of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts Bay, Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, free and independent ſtates; and that, as ſuch, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent ſtates may of right do. They alſo publiſhed articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendſhip, for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themſelves to aſſiſt each other againſt all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled againſt all or any one of them, on account of religion, ſovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatſoever. Each of the colonies reſerved to themſelves alone the excluſive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But for the more convenient management of the general intereſt of the United States, it was determined that delegates ſhould be annually appointed, in ſuch manner as the legiſlature of each

ſtate ſhould direct, to meet in congreſs on the firſt Monday in November of every year, with a power reſerved to each ſtate to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to ſend others in their ſtead for the remainder of the year. No ſtate was to be repreſented in congreſs by leſs than two, nor more than ſeven members; and no perſon was capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of ſix years; nor was any perſon, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, ſhould receive any ſalary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining queſtions in the United States, in congreſs aſſembled, each ſtate was to have one vote, and to abide by the determination of the United States in congreſs aſſembled, on all queſtions ſubmitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation were to be inviolably obſerved by every ſtate, and the union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration thenceforth to be made in any of them, unleſs previouſly agreed to in a congreſs of the United States, and afterwards confirmed by the legiſlature of that ſtate. It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent ſtates. Holland acknowledged them as ſuch April 19, 1782; and, on the 30th of November, 1782, proviſional articles were ſigned at Paris, by the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, in which his Britannic majeſty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates; and theſe articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as ſuch February 5, 1783; Denmark the 25th of February; Spain in March, and Ruſſia in July, 1783.

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*The following Calculations were made from actual Meaſurement of the beſt Maps, by* THOMAS HUTCHINS, Eſq. *Geographer to the United States.*

| | |
|---|---|
| The territory of the United States contains, by computation, a million ſquare miles, in which are - - - - - - - | 640,000,000 of acres. |
| Deduct for water - - - - - | 51,000,000 |
| Acres of land in the United States - - | 589,000,000 |

That part of the United States comprehended between the weſt temporary line of Pennſylvania on the eaſt, the boundary line between Britain and the United States, extending from the river Ste. Croix to the north-weſt extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north, the river Miſſiſſippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the weſt, and the river Ohio on the ſouth, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennſylvania, contains, by computation, about four hundred and eleven thouſand ſquare miles; in which are,

| | |
|---|---|
| | 263,040,000 of acres. |
| Deduct for water - - - - - | 43,040,000 |
| To be diſpoſed of by order of congreſs - - | 220,000,000 |

The whole of this immenſe extent of unappropriated weſtern territory, containing, as above ſtated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the ceſſion of ſome of the original thirteen ſtates, and by the treaty of peace transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund

for ſinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new ſtates, with republican conſtitutions, ſimilar to the old ſtates near the Atlantic Ocean.

*Eſtimate of the Number of Acres of Water, north and weſtward of the River Ohio, within the Territory of the United States.*

| | Acres. |
|---|---|
| In Lake Superior | 21,952,780 |
| Lake of the Woods | 1,133,800 |
| Lake Rain, &c. | 165,200 |
| Red Lake | 551,000 |
| Lake Michigan | 10,368,000 |
| Bay Puan | 1,216,000 |
| Lake Huron | 5,009,920 |
| Lake St. Clair | 89,500 |
| Lake Erie, weſtern part, | 2,252,800 |
| Sundry ſmall lakes and rivers | 301,000 |
| | 43,040,000 |

*Eſtimate of the Number of Acres of Water within the Thirteen United States.*

| | Acres. | |
|---|---|---|
| In Lake Erie, weſtward of the line extended from the north-weſt corner of Pennſylvania, due north to the boundary between the Britiſh territory and the United States | 410,000 | |
| In Lake Ontario | 2,390,000 | |
| Lake Champlain | 500,000 | |
| Cheſapeak Bay | 1,700,000 | |
| Albemarle Bay | 330,000 | |
| Delaware Bay | 630,000 | |
| All the rivers within the Thirteen States, including the Ohio, | 2,000,000 | |
| | | 7,960,000 |
| Total | | 51,000,000 |

The territory of the United States is in length 1,250 miles, and in breadth 1,040; lying between 31 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and between 64 and 96 degrees of weſt longitude. They conſiſt at preſent of ſixteen ſeparate independent ſtates, having governors, conſtitutions, and laws of their own, united under a general federal conſtitution, adminiſtered by an elective head, and by a proportionate number of repreſentatives of the people from all the ſtates. They are claſſed in three grand diviſions, as follows:

I. The NEW ENGLAND, or EASTERN, or NORTHERN STATES.
- Vermont
- New Hampſhire
- Maſſachuſetts, including the Diſtrict of Maine
- Rhode Iſland and Connecticut.

II. The MIDDLE STATES.
- New York
- New Jerſey
- Pennſylvania
- Delaware.

III. The SOUTHERN STATES.

| | |
|---|---|
| Maryland | South Carolina |
| Virginia | Georgia |
| Kentucky | Tenneſſee. |
| North Carolina | |

Beſides which, there is the extenſive North-weſtern territory mentioned above, which is gradually ſettling, and is hereafter, when its population ſhall be ſufficiently increaſed, to be divided into new ſtates.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.] According to the cenſus taken by order of congreſs, in 1790, the number of the inhabitants of the United States of America was 3,930,000 nearly In this number none of the inhabitants of the territory N. W. of the river Ohio, and but a part of the inhabitants ſouth of the river Ohio, are included. Theſe added would undoubtedly have increaſed the number to 3,950,000 * at the period the cenſus was taken. The increaſe ſince, on ſuppoſition that the inhabitants of the United States double once in twenty years, has been about 600,000; ſo that now there are probably 4,550,000 ſouls in the American United States.

PRESENT AND FUTURE CONSTITUTION OF CONGRESS. Such are the extenſive dominions dependent on congreſs, which, together with a preſident choſen for four years, conſiſts, ſince 1789 of a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives. The ſenate is compoſed of two ſenators from each ſtate, elected for ſix years; and the houſe of repreſentatives of one repreſentative, choſen every ſecond year, for every thirty-three thouſand inhabitants in each ſtate, until the number has exceeded one hundred; ſince which there is not to be leſs than one repreſentative for every forty thouſand, until the number of repreſentatives amounts to two hundred. When this takes place, the proportion between the people and their repreſentatives is to be ſo regulated by congreſs, that there ſhall not be leſs than two hundred repreſentatives, nor more than one repreſentative for every fifty thouſand perſons. This is the ultimate limit to which the Americans as yet look forward, in the conſtitution of the general government of their Union.

The ſeat of congreſs and government, after the year 1800, is to be removed to the new *City of Waſhington*, now building on a tract of land ceded by the States of Virginia and Maryland to the United States, and called the *Territory of Columbia*. This city, which has been ſeveral years building, ſtands at the junction of the river Patowmack and the Eaſtern Branch, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory exceeded, in point of convenience, ſalubrity, and beauty, by none in America. It is laid out in ſtraight ſtreets from north to ſouth, interſected by others running due eaſt and weſt. The principal ſtreets are from 130 to 160, and the others from 90 to 110 feet wide. The capital or ſtate-houſe is ſituated on a moſt beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a conſiderable part of the country round. It is 42 miles ſouth-weſt of Baltimore, and 144 in the ſame direction from Philadelphia; in north lat. 28-53; weſt long. 77-43.

* Morſe's American Geography, Vol. i. p. 207.

# NEW ENGLAND.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 350 | between | 41 and 46 North latitude | 87,000 |
| Breadth 140 | | 67 and 74 West longitude | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North by Canada; on the East by New Brunſwick and the Atlantic Ocean; on the South by the Atlantic and Long-Iſland Sound; and on the Weſt by New York *. It comprehends the States of Vermont, New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, &c.] New England is a high, hilly, and in ſome parts a mountainous country The mountains are comparatively ſmall, running nearly north and ſouth, in ridges parallel to each other. Between theſe ridges flow the great rivers in majeſtic mæanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger ſtreams which proceed from the mountains on each ſide. To a ſpectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a ſtate of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance.. They ſeem an ocean of woods, ſwelled and depreſſed in its ſurface, like that of the great ocean itſelf.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, paſſing nearly from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, through New England. They conſiſt of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many ſpurs, deviating from the courſe of the general range; which ſpurs are again broken into irregular hilly land. The main ridges terminate, ſometimes in high bluff heads, near the ſea-coaſt; and ſometimes by a gradual deſcent in the interior parts of the country. Theſe ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and ſprings of water, that give riſe to numberleſs ſtreams of various ſizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New England †.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piſcataway; 6. Saco; 7. Caſco; 8. Kennebeque; and, 9. Penobſcot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The moſt remarkable bays and harbours are thoſe formed by Plymouth, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations; Monument Bay; Weſt Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape Cod; Boſton Harbour; Piſcataway; and Caſco Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Cod, Marble Head, Cape Ann, Cape Netic, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, aud Cape Small Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though ſituated almoſt ten degrees nearer the ſun than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more ſevere than with us. The ſummer is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the ſame latitude. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions than any other of the American provinces. The

* Morſe's American Geography. † Morſe.

winds are very boiſterous in the winter ſeaſon, and naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, and the length and ſeverity of the winter, to the large freſh-water lakes lying to the north-weſt of New England, which, being frozen over ſeveral months, occaſion thoſe piercing winds which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt.

The ſun riſes at Boſton, on the longeſt day, at twenty-ſix minutes after four in the morning, and ſets at thirty-four minutes after ſeven in the evening; and on the ſhorteſt day, it riſes at thirty-five minutes after ſeven in the morning, ſets at twenty-ſeven minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longeſt day is about fifteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already obſerved, that the lands lying on the eaſtern ſhore of America are low, and in ſome parts ſwampy, but farther back they riſe into hills. In New England, towards the north-eaſt, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The ſoil here is various, but beſt as you approach the ſouthward. Round Maſſachuſetts Bay the ſoil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the firſt planters found the graſs above a yard high. The uplands are leſs fruitful, being for the moſt part a mixture of ſand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and paſture-land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much ſucceſs; the wheat is ſubject to be blaſted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flouriſhes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower ſort of the people. They have likewiſe malt, and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cider and ſpruce-beer: the latter is made of the tops of the ſpruce fir, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of melaſſes. They likewiſe raiſe in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a ſingle apple-tree has produced ſeven barrels of cider in one ſeaſon.

But New England is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypreſs, beech, walnut, cheſnut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumach, and other woods uſed in dyeing or tanning leather, carpenter's work, and ſhip-building. The oaks here are ſaid to be inferior to thoſe of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furniſhed the royal navy of England with maſts and yards. They draw from their trees conſiderable quantities of pitch, tar, reſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the ſoil produces hemp and flax. A ſhip may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their foreſts, and indeed ſhip-building forms a conſiderable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich mines of iron, of a moſt excellent kind and temper, have been diſcovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furniſh many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horſes of New England are hardy, mettleſome, and ſerviceable, but ſmaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. They have few ſheep; and the wool, though of a ſtaple ſufficiently long, is not nearly ſo fine as that of England. Here are alſo elks, deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minxs, martens, racoons, ſables, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds.

But one of the moſt ſingular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the mooſe and mooſe-deer, of which there are two ſorts; the common light gray mooſe, which reſembles the ordinary deer; theſe herd ſometimes thirty together; and the larger black mooſe, whoſe body is about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag's, and his fleſh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full-grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have ſhoots or branches to each horn, which generally ſpread about ſix feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and theſe prodigious horns are ſhed every year. This animal does not ſpring or riſe in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been ſeen to ſtep over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a courſe of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to bay; but when chaſed, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, turkeys, geeſe, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, ſwans, heath-cocks, herons, ſtorks, black-birds, all ſorts of barn-door fowl, vaſt flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain ſeaſons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattle-ſnakes, frogs, and toads, which ſwarm in the uncleared parts of theſe countries, where, with the owls, they make a moſt hideous noiſe in the ſummer evenings.

The ſeas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fiſh, and even whales of different kinds, ſuch as the whalebone whale, the ſpermaceti whale, which yields ambergriſe, the fin-backed whale, the ſcrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and ſend beſides ſome ſhips every year to fiſh for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland iſlands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from twenty to thirty feet long, with ſtrong teeth and jaws, perſecutes the whale in theſe ſeas: but, afraid of his monſtrous ſtrength, they ſeldom attack a full-grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobſcot, there is a mackarel fiſhery; they likewiſe fiſh for cod in the winter, which they dry in the froſt.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } There is not one of the colonies which can be compared, in the abundance of the people, the number of conſiderable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The moſt populous and flouriſhing parts of the mother country hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of conſiderable landed eſtates; but the great body of the people are landholders and cultivators of the ſoil. The former attaches them to their country; the latter, by making them ſtrong and healthy, enables them to defend it*. Theſe freeholds generally paſs to their children in the way of gavelkind; which keeps them from being hardly ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary ſort ſo independent, or poſſeſs more of the conveniences of life; they are uſed from their infancy to the exerciſe of arms; and before the conteſt with the mother country, they had a militia which was by no means contemptible; but their military ſtrength is now much more conſiderable.

The inhabitants of New England are almoſt univerſally of Engliſh deſcent; and it is owing to this circumſtance, and to the great and gene-

* Morſe's American Geography.

ral attention that has been paid to education, that the Engliſh language has been preſerved among them ſo free of corruption. It is true, that from lazineſs, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accuſtomed themſelves to uſe ſome peculiar phraſes, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawling manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New Englandman from his manner of ſpeaking. But the ſame may be ſaid with regard to a Pennſylvanian, a Virginian, a Carolinian; for all have ſome phraſes and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themſelves, which diſtinguiſh them from their neighbours.

The New Englanders are generally tall, ſtout, and well-built. They glory, and perhaps with juſtice, in poſſeſſing that ſpirit of freedom, which induced their anceſtors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardſhips of ſettling in a wilderneſs. Their education, laws, and ſituation, ſerve to inſpire them with high notions of liberty.—In New England, learning is more generally diffuſed among all ranks of people than in any other part of the globe; ariſing from the excellent eſtabliſhment of ſchools in every townſhip. A perſon of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found. By means of this general eſtabliſhment of ſchools, the extenſive circulation of newſpapers (of which not leſs than 30,000 are printed every week in New England, and ſent to almoſt every town and village in the country), and the conſequent ſpread of learning, every townſhip, throughout this country, is furniſhed with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgment and diſcretion*.

New England contains, according to the cenſus of 1790, 1,009,522 ſouls, and, ſhould any great and ſudden emergency require it, could furniſh an army of 164,600 men †.

RELIGION.] Calviniſm, from the principles of the firſt ſettlers, has been very prevalent in New England: many of the inhabitants alſo formerly obſerved the ſabbath with a kind of Jewiſh rigour; but this hath of late been much diminiſhed. There is at preſent no eſtabliſhed religion in New England; but every ſect of Chriſtians is allowed the free exerciſe of his religion, and is equally under the protection of the law‡. They annually celebrate faſts and thankſgivings. In the ſpring, the ſeveral governors iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiouſly obſerved in faſting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their reſpective ſtates, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harveſt, that gladſome æra of the huſbandman's life, a day of public thankſgiving is appointed, enumerating the public bleſſings received in the courſe of the year. This pious cuſtom originates with their venerable anceſtors, the firſt ſettlers. The cuſtom ſo rational, and ſo well calculated to cheriſh in the minds of the people a ſenſe of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFACTOR of the world for all their bleſſings, it is hoped, wil ever be ſacredly preſerved ||. The Connecticut province has lately provided a biſhop for the epiſcopalians among them, by ſending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring biſhops of the epiſcopal church in that kingdom.

HISTORY.] As early as 1606, king James I. had, by letters patent, erected two companies, with a power to ſend colonies into thoſe parts,

* Morſe's American Geography. † Morſe.

‡ By a late account, there are 400 Independent and Preſbyterian churches in this province, 84 Baptiſt, and 31 of other denominations.

|| Morſe's American Geography.

then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-eaſt coaſt of America was ſometimes called. No ſettlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themſelves with ſending out a ſhip or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fiſh upon their coaſt. This continued to be the only ſort of correſpondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By this time the religious diſſenſions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbiſhop Laud perſecuted all ſorts of non-conformiſts with an unrelenting ſeverity. Thoſe men, on the other hand, were ready to ſubmit to all the rigour of perſecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they conſidered as abuſes of the moſt dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, in order to obtain liberty of conſcience. America opened an extenſive field. Thither they might tranſport themſelves, and eſtabliſh whatever ſort of religious polity they were inclined to. With this view, having purchaſed the territory, which was within the juriſdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of ſettling it in whatever way they choſe, 150 perſons embarked for New England, and built a city, which, becauſe they had ſailed from Plymouth, they called by that name Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the climate, the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, and the diſeaſes to which, after a long ſea-voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were expoſed; notwithſtanding the want of all ſorts of conveniences, and even of many of the neceſſaries of life, thoſe who had conſtitutions fit to endure ſuch hardſhips, not diſpirited or broken by the death of their companions, and ſupported by the vigour then peculiar to Engliſhmen, and the ſatisfaction of finding themſelves beyond the reach of the ſpiritual arm, ſet themſelves to cultivate this country, and to take the beſt ſteps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themſelves, for the ſame reaſons, uneaſy at home, paſſed over into this land of religious and civil liberty, By the cloſe of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles-town, and Boſton; which laſt became the capital of New England. But as neceſſity is the natural ſource of that active and frugal induſtry which produces every thing great among mankind, ſo an uninterrupted flow of proſperity and ſucceſs occaſions thoſe diſſenſions which are the bane of human affairs, and often ſubvert the beſt founded eſtabliſhments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from perſecution, became in a ſhort time ſtrongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age ſuperior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking which at preſent diſtinguiſhes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of univerſal toleration, which, to the honour of the firſt ſettlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigoted Calviniſts; and though they had felt the weight of perſecution themſelves, they had no charity for thoſe who profeſſed ſentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the ſame ſociety, without maintaining the ſame religious opinions; and wherever theſe were at variance, the members of different ſects kept at a diſtance from each other, and eſtabliſhed ſeparate governments. Hence ſeveral

ſlips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themſelves in a new ſoil, and ſpread over the country. Such was that of New Hampſhire, which continues to this day a ſeparate juriſdiction; ſuch too was that of Rhode Iſland, whoſe inhabitants were driven out from the Maſſachuſett colony (for that is the name by which the government firſt erected in New England was diſtinguiſhed) for ſupporting the freedom of religious ſentiments, and maintaining that the civil magiſtrate had no right over the ſpeculative opinions of mankind. Theſe liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and, ſuch is the connection between juſtneſs of ſentiment and external proſperity, that the government of Rhode Iſland, though ſmall, became extremely populous and flouriſhing. Another colony, driven out by the ſame perſecuting ſpirit, ſettled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of ſuch as were diſſatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America, indeed, was now become the main reſource of all diſcontented and enterpriſing ſpirits; and ſuch were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that, in 1637, a proclamation was publiſhed, prohibiting any perſon from ſailing thither, without an expreſs licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is ſaid, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of the party, were detained from going into New England, after being on ſhip-board for that purpoſe.

Theſe four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at firſt, and ſtill continue, under ſeparate juriſdictions. They were all of them, by their charters, originally free, and in a great meaſure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, the aſſembly, and the power of making ſuch laws as they thought proper, without ſending them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be oppoſite to thoſe of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his miniſters wanted to deſtroy all charters and liberties, the Maſſachuſetts' colony was accuſed of violating their charter, in like manner as the city of London, and, by a judgment in the King's Bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extenſive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was veſted in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entruſted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council: the governor had a negative on the choice of counſellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reaſon for what he did in this particular, or reſtrained to any number; authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, were to be tranſmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were preſented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, were valid without the governor's conſent in writing; and appeals for ſums above 300l. were admitted to the king and council. Notwithſtanding theſe reſtraints,

the people had ſtill a great ſhare of power in this colony; for they not only choſe the aſſembly, but this aſſembly, with the governor's concurrence, choſe the council, reſembling our houſe of lords; and the governor depended upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport.

We ſhall now proceed to give an account of each ſtate ſeparately.

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# VERMONT.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 157<br>Breadth 65 | between | 42 and 45 North latitude.<br>72 and 73-30 Weſt longitude. | 10,000 |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED on the North by Lower Canada; on the Eaſt, by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampſhire; on the South, by Maſſachuſetts; and on the Weſt, by New York. It is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from ſouth to north, and divides the ſtate nearly in the middle. Its civil diviſion is into eleven counties as follow:

| | *Counties.* | *Towns.* |
|---|---|---|
| Weſt of the Mountain | Bennington | Bennington |
| | Rutland | Rutland |
| | Addiſon | Addiſon |
| | Chiltendon | Colcheſter |
| | Franklin | |
| | Orleans | |
| Eaſt of the Mountain | Orange | Newbury |
| | Windſor | Windſor |
| | Windham | Newfane and Putney |
| | Caledonia | |
| | Eſſex | |

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in this ſtate are Michiſcoui, Lamoille, Onion, and Otter creek rivers, which run from eaſt to weſt into Lake Champlain, Weſt, Sexton's Block, Waterquechee, White, Ompompanooſuck, Weld's, Wait's, Paſſumſick, and ſeveral ſmaller rivers, which run, from weſt to eaſt, into Connecticut river. Over the river Lamoille is a natural ſtone-bridge, ſeven or eight rods in length. Otter creek is navigable for boats fifty miles. Its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched. Memphremagog is the largeſt lake in this ſtate. It is the reſervoir of three conſiderable ſtreams, Black, Barton, and Clyde rivers. One of theſe riſes in Willoughby Lake, and forms a communication between it and Lake St. Peter's, in the river St. Laurence.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] This ſtate, generally ſpeaking, is hilly, but not rocky. Weſt of the mountain, from the county of Rutland, northward to the Canada line, is a flat country, well adapted for tillage. The ſtate at large is well watered, and affords the beſt of paſturage for cattle. Some of the fineſt beef-cattle in the world are driven from this ſtate: horſes alſo are raiſed for exportation. Back from the rivers, the

land is thickly timbered with birch, ſugar-maple, aſh, butter-nut, and white oak of an excellent quality. The ſoil is well fitted for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this ſtate trade principally with Boſton, New York, and Hartford. The articles of export are pot and pearl aſhes; beef, which is the principal article; horſes, grain, ſome butter and cheeſe, lumber, &c. Vaſt quantities of pot and pearl aſhes are made in every part of this ſtate: but one of its moſt important manufactures is that of maple-ſugar. It has been eſtimated, by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family back of Connecticut river, is 200lb. a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550lb. of a quality equal to imported brown ſugar. In two towns in Orange county, containing no more than forty families, 13,000lb. of ſugar were made in the year 1791.

POPULATION AND RELIGION.] In 1790, according to the cenſus then taken, this ſtate contained 85,539 inhabitants, conſiſting chiefly of emigrants from Connecticut and Maſſachuſetts, and their deſcendents. Two townſhips in Orange county are ſettled principally by Scotch. The body of the people are congregationaliſts; the other denominations are preſbyterians, baptiſts, and epiſcopalians. This ſtate is rapidly peopling.

CHIEF TOWNS.] In a new and interior country, large populous towns are not to be expected. Bennington, ſituated near the ſouth-weſt corner of the ſtate, is one of the largeſt It contains about 2400 inhabitants, a number of handſome houſes, a congregational church, a court-houſe, and gaol.

Windſor and Rutland, by a late act of the legiſlature, are alternately to be the ſeat of government for eight years. The former is ſituated on Connecticut river, and contains about 1600 inhabitants; the latter lies upon Otter creek, and contains upwards of 1400 inhabitants. Both are flouriſhing towns.

HISTORY.] The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampſhire; and theſe interfering claims have been the occaſion of much warm altercation. They were not finally adjuſted till ſince the peace. When hoſtilities commenced between Great Britain and the colonies, the inhabitants of this diſtrict, conſidering themſelves as in a ſtate of nature, and not within the juriſdiction either of New York or New Hampſhire, aſſociated, and formed a conſtitution for themſelves. Under this conſtitution they have continued to exerciſe all the powers of an independent ſtate, and have proſpered. On the 4th of March, 1791, agreeably to act of congreſs of December 6th, 1790, this ſtate became one of the United States, and conſtitutes the fourteenth, and not the leaſt reſpectable pillar of the American Union.

CONSTITUTION.] The legiſlature conſiſts of a houſe of repreſentatives, and a council of twelve, beſides the governor, who is preſident, and the lieutenant-governor, who is officially a member. The freemen meet annually in their ſeveral towns to chooſe the governor, counſellors, and other magiſtrates; and to the privilege of voting, all males, twenty-one years old, and of peaceable diſpoſitions, are entitled, after taking the oath of fidelity to the ſtate. The judges of the ſupreme and county courts, ſheriffs, and juſtices of the peace, are appointed annually, by joint ballot of the council and houſe. The council may originate bills, other than money-bills, and ſuſpend till the next ſeſſion ſuch bills as they diſapprove; but have not a final negative.

# NEW HAMPSHIRE.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 168<br>Breadth from 90 to 19 | between | 42 41 and 45-11 North latitude<br>70-40 and 72-28 Weſt longitude | 9,500 |

BOUNDARIES.] NEW Hampſhire is bounded by Lower Canada on the North; by the diſtrict of Maine on the Eaſt; by Maſſachuſetts on the South; and by Connecticut river, which ſeparates it from Vermont, on the Weſt.

It is divided into five counties as follows:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Rockingham | Portſmouth and Concord |
| Strafford | Dover and Durham |
| Cheſhire | Charles-town and Keene |
| Hillſborough | Amherſt |
| Grafton | Plymouth. |

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The moſt conſiderable rivers of this ſtate are the Connecticut, Merrimack, Piſcataqua, Saco, Androſcoggin, Upper and Lower Amonooſuck, beſides many other ſmaller ſtreams. The chief lakes are Winnipiſcogee, Umbagog, Sunopee, Squam, and Great Oſſipee.

MOUNTAINS.] New Hampſhire is interſected with ſeveral ridges of mountains, among which are the Blue Hills, and the lofty ridge which divides the Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated the *Height of Land*. But the White Mountains, which run through this ſtate, are undoubtedly the higheſt in all New England. Their height above an adjacent meadow is 3500 feet, and the meadow is 3500 above the level of the ſea. They are almoſt continually covered with ſnow and ice, whence they have received the name of White Mountains. Though they are ſeventy miles inland, they are viſible many leagues off at ſea. One of their loftieſt ſummits, which makes a majeſtic appearance along the ſhore of Maſſachuſetts, has lately been diſtinguiſhed by the name of Mount Waſhington.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of New Hampſhire is healthful, and the weather is commonly ſerene, and not ſo ſubject to variation as in the more ſouthern ſtates. From the vicinity of the White Mountains, which, as has been ſaid, are almoſt always covered with ſnow and ice, this country is extremely cold in winter. In ſummer the heat is great, but of ſhort duration. The ſhore is moſtly a ſandy beach, adjoining to which are ſalt-marſhes, interſected by creeks, which produce good paſture for cattle and ſheep. The interval lands on the margin of great rivers are the moſt valuable, becauſe they are overflowed and enriched by the water from the uplands, which brings a fat ſlime or ſediment. On Connecticut river theſe lands are from a quarter of a mile to a mile and a half on each ſide, and produce graſs, corn, and grain, eſpecially wheat, in greater abundance and perfection than the ſame kind of ſoil does in the higher lands. The wide-ſpreading hills are eſteemed as warm and rich; rocky moiſt land is accounted good for paſture; drained ſwamps have a deep mellow ſoil, and the valleys between the hills are generally very productive. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulſe,

butter, cheeſe, hops, eſculent roots and plants, flax and hemp, are raiſed in immenſe quantities in New Hampſhire; which likewiſe produces great plenty of beef, pork, mutton, and poultry. Apples and pears are the moſt common fruits in this ſtate; but tree-fruit of the firſt quality cannot be raiſed in ſuch a northern climate as this without particular attention. The uncultivated lands are covered with extenſive foreſts of pine, fir, cedar, oak, walnut, &c.

Several kinds of earths and clays are found in this ſtate. It produces red and yellow ochres, ſteatites or ſoap-rock, the beſt lapis ſpecularis, a kind of talc, commonly called iſinglaſs; cryſtals, alum, vitriol, free-ſtone, iron ore, and black lead. Some lead and copper ore have been ſeen; but iron is the only metal which has been wrought to any advantage.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of inhabitants in New Hampſhire, according to the cenſus taken by order of congreſs in 1790, was 141,885. In 1767, the number was eſtimated at 52,700. The trade of this ſtate is conſiderable, though it is not to be ranked among the great commercial ſtates. Its exports conſiſt of lumber, ſhip-timber, whale-oil, flax-ſeed, live-ſtock, beef, pork, Indian corn, pot and pearl-aſhes, &c. In 1790, there belonged to Piſcataqua 33 veſſels above 100 tons, and 50 under that burden. The value of the exports from that port in 1793 amounted to 198,197 dollars. The bank of Hampſhire was eſtabliſhed in 1792, with a capital of 60,000 dollars: by an act of aſſembly the ſtock-holders can increaſe it to 200,000 dollars in ſpecie, and 100,000 dollars in any other eſtate.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES.] The only college in this ſtate is at Hanover, called Dartmouth college, which is amply endowed with lands, and is in a flouriſhing ſituation. The principal academies are thoſe of Exeter, New Ipſwich, Atkinſon, and Amherſt.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portſmouth is the metropolis, and the largeſt town in New Hampſhire. Its harbour is one of the fineſt on the continent, having a ſufficient depth of water for veſſels of any burden, and being ſo well defended againſt ſtorms by the land that ſhips may ſecurely ride there in any ſeaſon of the year. Concord is a very flouriſhing town, pleaſantly ſituated on the Merrimack river. The legiſlature of late have commonly held their ſeſſions here; and, from its central ſituation and a thriving back country, it will probably become the permanent ſeat of government.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This ſtate firſt began to be ſettled about the year 1629, and was erected into a ſeparate government in the year 1679, but ſeems afterwards to have been under the ſame governor with Maſſachuſetts; becauſe New Hampſhire complained to the king in council againſt the joint-governor, relative to the boundaries between the two colonies, and, on hearing the complaint, a ſeparate government was appointed in 1740. According to its preſent conſtitution, the legiſlative power, as in the other United States, reſides in a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, which together are here ſtyled the general court, and the ſupreme executive authority is veſted in a governor and council, the latter conſiſting of five members.

# MASSACHUSETTS, INCLUDING THE DISTRICT OF MAINE.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 150, Breadth 60 | between | 64-57 and 73-38 west longitude; 41-13 and 48-15 north latitude | 48,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] MASSACHUSETTS, which, with the district of Maine, constitutes one of the United States of America, is bounded on the North by Vermont and New Hampshire; on the East, by the Atlantic Ocean; on the South, by the Atlantic, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; and on the West, by New York.

This state is divided into seventeen counties.

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Suffolk | BOSTON (42-23 N. lat. 70-59 W. long.) |
| Norfolk | Dedham |
| Essex | Salem |
| Middlesex | Charles-town |
| Hampshire | Northampton |
| Worcester | Worcester |
| Plymouth | Plymouth |
| Barnstable | Barnstable |
| Duke's county | Edgarton |
| Nantucket | Nantucket |
| Bristol | Taunton |
| Berkshire | Stockbridge. |
| District of MAINE. | |
| York | York |
| Cumberland | Portland |
| Lincoln | Pownalborough |
| Hancock | Hancock |
| Washington | Machias. |

RIVERS, BAYS, CAPES, AND ISLANDS.] The country is well watered by a number of small rivers, of which the principal are Mystic and Charles rivers. The chief bays are Massachusetts, Ipswich, Boston, Plymouth, and Barnstable; the most remarkable capes, Ann, Cod, Malabar, Poge, and Gay Head; the principal islands Plumb island, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, Elizabeth islands, and numerous small isles in Boston Bay.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is similar to that of the other northern states. In the district of Maine the heat in summer is intense, and the cold in winter extremely severe. In Massachusetts are to be found all the varieties of soil from very good to very bad; and capable of yielding in abundance all the different productions common to the climate: such as Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, field-beans and peas, apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, &c.

Iron ore, in immense quantities, is found in various parts of this state; as likewise copper ore, black lead, pipe-maker's clay, yellow and red

ochre, alum and ſlate. Several mineral ſprings have been found in different parts of the country.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The number of inhabitants in Maſſachuſetts was in 1790, 378,787. This is the only ſtate in the union in which there are no ſlaves: ſlavery was aboliſhed by the legiſlature ſome years ago. This ſtate, including the diſtrict of Maine, owns more than three times as many tons of ſhipping as any other of the ſtates; and more than one third part of the whole that belongs to the United States. Upwards of 29,000 tons are employed in carrying on the fiſheries, 46,000 in the coaſting buſineſs, and 96,500 in trading with almoſt all parts of the world. Pot and pearl-aſhes, ſtaves, flax-ſeed, and bees-wax, are carried chiefly to Great Britain, in remittance for their manufactures; maſts and proviſions to the Eaſt Indies; fiſh, oil, beef, pork, lumber, and candles, are carried to the Weſt Indies for their produce; and the two firſt articles, fiſh and oil, to France, Spain, and Portugal; roots, vegetables, and fruits to Nova Scotia and New Brunſwic; hats, ſadlery, cabinet-work, men's and women's ſhoes, nails, tow-cloth, barley, hops, butter, and cheeſe, to the ſouthern ſtates. The value of exports in the year 1791 was 2,445,975 dollars, and in 1794, 5,380,703 dollars. Great quantities of nails are made in this ſtate. The machine invented by Caleb Leach, of Plymouth, will cut and head 5000 nails in a day, under the direction of a youth of either ſex. There is alſo a machine for cutting nails at Newbury port, invented by Mr. Jacob Perkins, which will turn out *two hundred thouſand* nails in a day. The nails are ſaid to have a decided ſuperiority over thoſe of Engliſh manufacture, and are ſold 20 per cent. cheaper. There are in this ſtate upwards of twenty paper-mills, which make more than 70,000 reams of writing, printing, and wrapping-paper, annually. There were, in 1792, 62 diſtilleries, which diſtilled in one year from foreign materials 1,900,000 gallons. There are ſeveral ſnuff, oil, chocolate, and powder-mills; there are indeed few articles which are eſſentially neceſſary, and miniſter to the comfort and convenience of life, that are not manufactured in this ſtate.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] There is no eſtabliſhed religion in Maſſachuſetts, but every ſect of Chriſtians is allowed the free exerciſe of its religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws.

In May 1780, the council and houſe of repreſentatives of Maſſachuſetts paſſed an act for incorporating and eſtabliſhing a ſociety for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and ſciences. It is entitled the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. The firſt members were named in the act, and never were to be more than two hundred, nor leſs than forty. There is likewiſe a univerſity at Cambridge, four miles weſt of Boſton, the college buildings of which are four in number, and named Harvard, Hollis, and Maſſachuſetts Halls, and Holden Chapel. This univerſity generally has from 140 to 200 ſtudents; and as to its library, philoſophical apparatus, and profeſſorſhips, is at preſent the firſt literary inſtitution on this continent. It takes its date from the year 1638, ſeven years after the firſt ſettlement in the townſhip, then called Newtown.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boſton is the capital of this ſtate, the largeſt town in New England, and the third in ſize and rank in the United States. It is built on a peninſula of irregular form, at the bottom of Maſſachuſetts Bay, and is joined to the main-land by an iſthmus at the ſouth end of the town. It is two miles long, but of unequal breadth; the broadeſt part is 726 yards. In 1790, it contained 2376 dwelling-houſes, and

18,038 inhabitants; but the increaſe has been very conſiderable ſince. It contains nineteen edifices for public worſhip, of which nine are ſo congregationaliſts, three for epiſcopalians, and two for baptiſts: the friends, Roman-catholics, methodiſts, ſandemonians, and univerſalians, have one each. There are alſo ſeven free-ſchools, beſides a great number of private ſchools. The harbour is capacious enough for 500 veſſels to ride at anchor in good depth of water, while the entrance is ſo narrow as ſcarcely to admit two ſhips abreaſt. The wharfs and quays in Boſton are about eighty in number, and very convenient for veſſels. Long Wharf, or Boſton Pier, in particular, extends from the bottom of State-ſtreet 1743 feet into the harbour in a ſtraight line. The breadth is 104 feet. At the end are 17 feet of water at ebb-tide. Long Wharf is covered on the north ſide with large and commodious warehouſes, and in every reſpect exceeds any thing of the kind in the United States. Charles river and Weſt Boſton bridges are highly uſeful and ornamental to Boſton, and both are on Charles river, which mingles its waters with thoſe of Myſtic river, in Boſton harbour. Charles river bridge connects Boſton with Charles-town, in Middleſex county, and is 15 3 feet long, 42 feet broad, and ſtands on 75 piers. Weſt Boſton is 3483 feet long, ſtands on 180 piers, and exceeds the other as much in elegance as in length. The view of the town, as it is approached from the ſea, is truly beautiful and pictureſque. It lies in a circular and pleaſingly irregular form round the harbour, and is ornamented with ſpires, above which the monument of Beacon Hill riſes pre-eminent: on its top is a gilt eagle, bearing the arms of the Union, and on the baſe of the column are inſcriptions commemorating ſome of the moſt remarkable events of the late war. The town is governed by nine ſelect men, choſen at an annual meeting in March, when twelve overſeers, twelve conſtables, and ſome other officers, are choſen. Attempts have been made to change the government of the town from its preſent form to that of a city; but this meaſure, not according with the democratic ſpirit of the people, has as yet failed.

Salem is the ſecond town in this ſtate. It contained, in 1790, 928 houſes, and 7921 inhabitants. It is a very commercial place, and is connected with Beverly by Eſſex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length; erected in 1789. The harbour is defended by a fort.

Plymouth was the firſt town built in New England, and peopled principally by the deſcendents of the firſt ſettlers. The rock on which their forefathers landed was conveyed in 1774 from the ſhore to a ſquare in the centre of the town, where it remains as a monument. The ſituation of the town is pleaſant and healthful.

Portland is the capital of the diſtrict of Maine. It has a moſt excellent, ſafe, and capacious harbour, and is one of the moſt thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts. In 1795 a fort, a citadel, and a battery of ten pieces of cannon, were erected for its defence.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] An account of the firſt ſettlement and early hiſtory of Maſſachuſetts has already been given under the general head of New England. In conſequence of the revolt of the American colonies from the authority of Great Britain, (of the origin and progreſs of which an account has been given in another place,) on the 25th of July, 1776, by an order from the council at Boſton, the declaration of the American Congreſs, abſolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the ſtate-houſe in hat town.

A conſtitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and eſtabliſhed by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of the inſtitution, maintenance, and adminiſtration of government, is to ſecure the exiſtence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furniſh the individuals who compoſe it, with the power of enjoying, in ſafety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the bleſſings of life; and that, whenever theſe great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take meaſures neceſſary for their proſperity and happineſs. They expreſſed their gratitude to the Great Legiſlator of the univerſe, for having afforded them, in the courſe of his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without fraud, violence, or ſurpriſe, of entering into an original, explicit, and ſolemn compact with each other; and of forming a new conſtitution of civil government for themſelves and their poſterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in ſociety, publicly, and at ſtated ſeaſons, to worſhip the Supreme Being; and that no ſubject ſhould be hurt, moleſted, or reſtrained in his perſon, liberty, or eſtate, for worſhipping God in the manner and ſeaſon moſt agreeable to the dictates of his own conſcience; or for his religious profeſſion or ſentiments: provided he did not diſturb the public peace, or obſtruct others in their religious worſhip.

It was alſo enacted, that the ſeveral towns, pariſhes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious ſocieties, ſhould, at all times, have the excluſive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their ſupport and maintenance. That all moneys paid by the ſubject to the ſupport of public worſhip, and of the public teachers, ſhould, if he required it, be uniformly applied to the ſupport of the public teacher or teachers of his own religious ſect or denomination, provided there were any on whoſe inſtructions he attended; otherwiſe it might be paid towards the ſupport of the teacher or teachers of the pariſh or precinct in which the ſaid moneys ſhould be raiſed. That every denomination of Chriſtians, demeaning themſelves peaceably, and as good ſubjects of the commonwealth, ſhould be equally under the protection of the law; and that no ſubordination of any ſect or denomination to another ſhould ever be eſtabliſhed by law.

It was likewiſe declared, that as all power reſided originally in the people, and was derived from them, the ſeveral magiſtrates and officers of government veſted with authority, whether legiſlative, executive, or judicial, are their ſubſtitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them. That no ſubject ſhould be arreſted, or deprived of his property or privileges, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. That the legiſlature ſhould not make any law that ſhould ſubject any perſon to a capital or infamous puniſhment, excepting for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury. That the liberty of the preſs is eſſential to the ſecurity of freedom in a ſtate; and that it ought not, therefore, to be reſtrained in that commonwealth. That the people have a right to keep and bear arms, for the common defence; but that, as in times of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the conſent of the legiſlature; and that the military power ſhould always be held in exact ſubordination to the civil authority.

The legiſlature of Maſſachuſetts conſiſts of a ſenate, and a houſe of

repreſentatives; which, together with the governor and lieutenant-governor, are elected annually by the people: electors muſt be twenty-one years of age, have freeholds of the annual value of three pounds, or perſonal eſtate to the value of ſixty pounds. To be eligible to the office of governor or lieutenant-governor, the candidate muſt have reſided in the ſtate ſeven years, and during that time have been ſeiſed of a freehold of one thouſand pounds. Senators muſt have reſided five years in the ſtate, and have poſſeſſed a freehold to the value of three hundred pounds, or perſonal property to the value of ſix hundred pounds. A repreſentative muſt have reſided one year in the town which he is choſen to repreſent, and have been ſeiſed therein of freehold eſtate to the value of one hundred pounds, or been poſſeſſed of perſonal property to the value of two hundred pounds. From the perſons returned as ſenators and counſellors, being forty in all, nine are annually elected, by joint ballot of both houſes, for the purpoſe of adviſing the governor in the execution of his office. All judicial officers, the attorney and ſolicitor-general, ſheriffs, &c. are, with the advice of the council, appointed by the governor. The judges (except juſtices of the peace, whoſe commiſſions expire in ſeven years, but may be renewed) hold their offices during good behaviour.

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# RHODE ISLAND.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 47 | between | 41-26 and 42-10 north lat. | 1,300 |
| Breadth 37 | | 71-17 and 71-40 weſt lon. | |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] RHODE ISLAND and Providence Plantations, which together form the ſmalleſt of the United States, are bounded on the North and Eaſt by Maſſachuſetts; on the South, by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the Weſt, by Connecticut. This ſtate is divided into the five following counties:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Newport | Newport |
| Providence | Providence |
| Waſhington | South Kingſton |
| Briſtol | Briſtol |
| Kent | |

ISLANDS, HARBOURS, AND RIVERS.] Narraganſet bay contains ſeveral fertile iſlands; the principal of which are, Rhode Iſland, Cannonicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's and Hog Iſlands. Block Iſland is the ſouthernmoſt land belonging to the ſtate. Rhode Iſland, from which the ſtate takes its name, is about fifteen miles in length, and about three and a half broad, on an average. The harbours are, Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren, and Briſtol. This ſtate is interſected in all directions by rivers; the chief of which are Providence and Taunton rivers, which fall into Narraganſet bay.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Rhode Iſland is as healthy a country as any in America. The winters, in the maritime parts of the ſtate are milder than in the inland country: the air being ſoftened by a ſea

vapour, which alſo enriches the ſoil. The ſummers are delightful, eſpecially in Rhode Iſland; where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreſhing breezes from the ſea. This ſtate produces rye, barley, oats, and, in ſome parts, wheat, ſufficient for home conſumption; and the various kinds of graſſes, fruits, and culinary roots and plants, in great abundance, and in perfection: cider is made for exportation. The north-weſtern parts of the ſtate are but thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the other parts. Iron ore is found in great plenty in ſeveral parts of this ſtate; there is alſo a copper mine, mixed with iron ſtrongly impregnated with load-ſtone. Abundance of lime-ſtone is alſo found here.

POPULATION, TRADE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The ſtate of Rhode Iſland, in 1790, contained 68,825 perſons, of whom 948 were ſlaves. The town of Briſtol carries on a conſiderable trade to Africa, the Weſt Indies, and to different parts of the United States; but by far the greateſt part of the commerce of Rhode Iſland is at preſent carried on by the inhabitants of the flouriſhing town of Providence, which had, in 1791, 129 ſail of veſſels, containing 11,942 tons. The exports from this ſtate are, flax-ſeed, lumber, horſes, cattle, beef, pork, fiſh, poultry, onions, butter, cheeſe, barley, grain, ſpirits, cotton and linen goods. The imports conſiſt of European and Weſt Indian goods, and log-wood from the Bay of Honduras. Upwards of 600 veſſels enter and clear annually at the different ports in the ſtate. The amount of exports from this ſtate to foreign countries for one year, ending Sept. 30, 1791, was 470,131 dollars; and, in 1794, 954,573 dollars. The inhabitants of this ſtate are rapidly improving in manufactures. A cotton manufactory has been erected at Providence. Jeans, fuſtians, denims, thickſets, velvets, &c. are here manufactured, and ſent to the ſouthern ſtates. Large quantities of linen and tow-cloth are made in different parts of this ſtate for exportation; but the moſt conſiderable manufactures here are thoſe of iron; ſuch as bar and ſheet iron, ſteel, nail-rods, and nails, implements of huſbandry, ſtoves, pots, and other houſehold utenſils; the iron-work of ſhipping, anchors, and bells.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] Liberty of conſcience has been inviolably maintained in this ſtate, ever ſince its firſt ſettlement. So little has the civil authority to do with religion here, that no contract between a miniſter and a ſociety (unleſs incorporated for that purpoſe) is of any force. It is probably for theſe reaſons that ſo many different ſects have ever been found here; and that the ſabbath, and all religious inſtitutions, have been more neglected in this than in any other of the New England ſtates.

A college, called Rhode Iſland college, is eſtabliſhed at Providence. It is a ſpacious edifice, and contains upwards of ſixty ſtudents. It has a library, containing nearly 3000 volumes, and a valuable philoſophical apparatus.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns in the ſtate of Rhode Iſland are, Providence and Newport. The former is ſituated at the head of Narraganſet bay, on both ſides of Providence river, over which is a bridge 160 feet long and 22 wide. It is a large and handſome town, containing ſeveral elegant buildings, and about 6,400 inhabitants.

Newport is ſituated at the ſouth-weſt end of Rhode Iſland. The harbour (which is one of the fineſt in the world) ſpreads weſtward before the town. The entrance is eaſy and ſafe, and a large fleet may anchor in it, and ride in perfect ſecurity. Newport contains about 1,000 houſes.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This ſtate was firſt ſettled from Maſſachuſetts. Mr. Roger Williams, a miniſter, who came over to New England in 1631, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was on that account forced to leave his houſe, land, wife, and children, at Salem, in the dead of winter, and to ſeek a reſidence without the limits of Maſſachuſetts. Governor Winthrop adviſed him to purſue his courſe to Nehiganſet or Narraganſet bay; which he did, and fixed himſelf at Secunk, or Seekhonk, now Rehoboth. But that place being within the bounds of the Plymouth colony, governor Winſlow, in a friendly manner, adviſed him to remove to the other ſide of the river, where the lands were not covered by any patent. Accordingly, in 1636, Mr. Williams, and four others, croſſed Seekhonk river, and landed among the Indians, by whom they were hoſpitably received; and thus laid the foundation of a town, which, from a ſenſe of GOD's merciful providence to him, he called *Providence*. Here he was ſoon after joined by a number of others; and though they were ſecured from the Indians by the terror of the Engliſh, yet they, for a conſiderable time, ſuffered much from fatigue and want: but they enjoyed liberty of conſcience, which is ſtill maintained in this ſtate.

The conſtitution of Rhode Iſland is founded on the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663; and the frame of government was not eſſentially altered by the revolution. The legiſlature of the ſtate conſiſts of two branches; a ſenate, or upper houſe, compoſed of ten members, beſides the governor and deputy-governor, called in the charter *aſſiſtants*; and a houſe of repreſentatives, compoſed of deputies from the ſeveral towns. The members of the legiſlature are choſen twice a year; and there are two ſeſſions of this body annually, viz. on the firſt Wedneſday in May, and the laſt Wedneſday in October.

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# CONNECTICUT.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 100 | between | 71-20 and 73-15 weſt longitude | 4,674 |
| Breadth 72 | | 41- 0 and 42- 2 north latitude | |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISION.] CONNECTICUT is bounded on the North by Maſſachuſets; on the Eaſt, by Rhode Iſland; on the South, by the Sound which divides it from Long Iſland; and, on the Weſt, by the ſtate of New York.

It is divided into eight counties, as follows:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Fairfield | Fairfield |
| New Haven | New Haven |
| Middleſex | Middleton |
| New London | New London |
| Litchfield | Litchfield |
| Hartford | Hartford |
| Tolland | Tolland |
| Windham | Windham |

RIVERS AND BAYS.] The principal rivers in this ſtate are, the Connecticut, Houſatonick, Thames, and their branches. The whole of

the ſea-coaſt is indented with harbours, many of which are ſafe and commodious; but thoſe of New London and New Haven are the moſt important.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Connecticut, though ſubject to the extremes of heat and cold in their ſeaſons, and to frequent ſudden changes, is very healthful. It is generally broken land, made up of mountains, hills, and valleys; and is exceedingly well watered. Some parts of it are thin and barren. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the ſtate, oats and barley, which are heavy and good, and, of late, buck-wheat; flax in large quantities; ſome hemp; potatoes of ſeveral kinds, which are common to the climate. The ſoil is very well calculated for paſturage and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed great numbers of neat cattle and horſes.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] In 1790 the population of this ſtate amounted to 237,946 perſons, of whom 2,764 were ſlaves. The inhabitants are almoſt entirely of Engliſh deſcent. There are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Iriſh people, in any part of the ſtate.

The exports from this ſtate conſiſt of horſes, mules, oxen, oak-ſtaves, hoops, pine-boards, oak plank, beans, Indian corn, fiſh, beef, and pork. The amount of foreign exports, in the year 1794, amounted to 806,746 dollars.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] All religions that are conſiſtent with the peace of ſociety are tolerated in Connecticut; and a ſpirit of liberality and catholiciſm is increaſing. There are very few religious ſects in this ſtate. The bulk of the people are congregationaliſts; and there are beſides epiſcopalians and baptiſts.

Yale college, at New Haven, is an eminent ſeminary of learning. It was founded in the year 1700. It has a public library of about 3,000 volumes, and a very complete philoſophical apparatus. Academies have likewiſe been eſtabliſhed at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and Pomfret, ſome of which are flouriſhing. In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut; almoſt every town in the ſtate is divided into diſtricts, and each diſtrict has a public ſchool kept in it a greater or leſs part of every year. A thirſt for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the ſtate. More of the young men in Connecticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a public education than in any of the ſtates.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are a great number of very pleaſant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities, incorporated with extenſive juriſdiction in civil cauſes. Two of theſe, Hartford and New Haven, are capitals of the ſtate. The general aſſembly is holden at the former in May, and at the latter in October, annually. Hartford is regularly laid out; the ſtreets interſecting each other at right angles. The other cities are New London, Norwich, and Middleton.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The firſt grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council to the earl of Warwick, in 1630. The year following the earl aſſigned this grant to lord Say and Seal, lord Brook, and nine others. Some Indian traders ſettled at Windſor in 1633. The ſame year, a little before the arrival of the Engliſh, a few Dutch traders ſettled at Hartford; and the remains of the ſettlement are ſtill viſible on the bank of Connecticut river. In 1634, lord Say and Seal, &c. ſent over a ſmall number of men, who built a fort at Say-brook, and made a treaty with the Pequot Indians for the lands on Con-

necticut river. Mr. Haynes and Mr. Hooker left Maſſachuſetts bay in 1634, and ſettled at Hartford. The following year, Mr. Eaton and Mr. Davenport ſeated themſelves at New Haven. In 1644 the Connecticut adventurers purchaſed of Mr. Fenwick, agent for lord Say and Seal and lord Brook, their right to the colony for 1600l. Connecticut and New Haven continued two diſtinct governments for many years. At length, John Winthrop, eſq. who had been choſen governor of Connecticut, was employed to ſolicit a royal charter. In 1662, Charles II. granted a charter, conſtituting the two colonies for ever one body corporate and politic, by the name of the governor and company of Connecticut. New Haven took the affair ill; but in 1665 all difficulties were amicably adjuſted, and this charter ſtill continues to be the baſis of their government.

The ſupreme legiſlative authority of the ſtate is veſted in a governor, deputy-governor, twelve aſſiſtants or counſellors, and the repreſentatives of the people, ſtyled the general aſſembly. The governor, deputy-governor, and aſſiſtants, are annually choſen by the freemen in the month of May. The repreſentatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are choſen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual ſeſſions, on the ſecond Tueſdays of May and October. The general aſſembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houſes. The upper houſe is compoſed of the governor, deputy-governor, and aſſiſtants: the lower houſe, of the repreſentatives of the people. No law can paſs without the concurrence of both houſes.

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# NEW YORK.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 350<br>Breadth 300 | between | 40 and 45 north latitude<br>73 and 80 weſt longitude | 24,000 |

BOUNDARIES. NEW YORK is bounded on the South and South-weſt by Hudſon's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jerſey and Pennſylvania; and on the Eaſt and North-eaſt by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the North-weſt by Canada.

This ſtate, including the iſland of New York, Long Iſland, and Staten Iſland, is divided into the twenty-one following counties:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| NEW YORK | NEW YORK. 40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. long. |
| Albany | Albany |
| Ulſter | Kingſton |
| Ducheſs | Poughkeepſie |
| Orange | Orange |
| Weſt Cheſter | Bedford, White Plains |
| King's | Flatbuſh, Brooklyn |
| Queen's | Jamaica |

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Suffolk | Eaſt Hampton, Huntingdon |
| Richmond | Richmond |
| Waſhington | Salem |
| Columbia | Hudſon, Kinderhook |
| Clinton | Platſburg |
| Montgomery | Johnſtown |
| Ranſelaer | Lanſinburg |
| Ontario | Canadaque |
| Herkemer | German Flats |
| Otſego | Cooper's Town |
| Tioga | Chemango, Union Town |
| Saratoga | Saratoga |
| Onondago | None |

RIVERS.] The principal of theſe are Hudſon's and the Mohawk: the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well ſtored with great variety of fiſh; on this the cities of New York and Albany are ſituated.

The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is ſix hundred miles from New York. It is navigable, for ſloops of eighty tons, to Albany, and for ſhips to Hudſon. About ſixty miles above New York the water becomes freſh. The river is ſtored with a variety of fiſh, which renders a ſummer paſſage to Albany delightful and amuſing to thoſe who are fond of angling. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is ſaid to fall thirty feet perpendicular; but, including the deſcent above, the fall is as much as ſixty or ſeventy feet, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAPES.] Theſe are Cape May, on the eaſt entrance of Delaware river; Sandy Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the eaſt end of Long Iſland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the ſouth of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all conſtitutions. The face of the country, reſembling that of the other Britiſh American colonies, is low, flat, and marſhy towards the ſea. As you recede from the coaſt, the eye is entertained with the gradual ſwelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The ſoil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the ſame with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

CITIES, POPULATION, AND COMMERCE.] The city of New York ſtands on the ſouth-weſt end of York Iſland, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well ſituated for trade, at the mouth of Hudſon's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards Canada and the lakes. This city is in length above two miles, and its mean breadth about a mile. This city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a ſpacious manſion-houſe, for the uſe of the governor. Many of the houſes are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine proſpect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by ſome incendiaries in 1776, on the king's troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants, reckoned in 1790 at 33,131, are deſcended from the Dutch families who remained here after the ſur-

render of the New Netherlands to the Engliſh, and the whole province, in 1790, was numbered at 340,220, of whom 11,324 were ſlaves*.

The city of Albany contains about 6000 inhabitants, collected from almoſt all parts of the northern world. As great a variety of languages are ſpoken in Albany as in any town in the United States. Adventurers in purſuit of wealth are led here by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the fineſt rivers in the world, at the head of ſloop-navigation, ſurrounded with a rich and extenſive back country, and the ſtore-houſe of the trade to and from Canada and the lakes, it muſt flouriſh, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich.

The city of Hudſon, however, is their great rival, and has had the moſt rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783†.

The ſituation of New York, with reſpect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the ſtates. It has at all ſeaſons of the year a ſhort and eaſy acceſs to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the beſt ſettled and beſt cultivated parts of the United States. It has been ſuppoſed by well-informed gentlemen, that more wealth is conveyed down Connecticut river, and through the Sound to New York, than down the Hudſon. This is not improbable, as the banks of the Connecticut are more fertile and much thicker, and more extenſively ſettled than the banks of Hudſon ‡. The commodities in which they trade, are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the ſame with thoſe which the New Englanders uſe; and they have a ſhare in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spaniſh and French plantations. They uſed to take almoſt the ſame ſort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boſton. At an average of three years, their exports were ſaid to amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000l. The exports from this ſtate in 1791 amounted to 2,505,465 dollars; and in 1795 to 10,304,580 dollars; or above two millions ſterling.

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.] New York is at leaſt half a century behind her neighbours in New England, New Jerſey, and Pennſylvania, in point of improvement in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reaſons for this deficiency, that of want of enterpriſe in the inhabitants is not the leaſt. Indeed, their local advantages are ſuch, that they have grown rich without enterpriſe. Beſides, lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of courſe large; and it requires much leſs ingenuity to raiſe one thouſand buſhels of wheat upon ſixty acres of land, than to raiſe the ſame quantity upon thirty acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New York can have ſixty acres of land to raiſe one thouſand buſhels of wheat, he will never trouble himſelf to find out how he can raiſe the ſame quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that ſtamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family upon a ſmall farm, his invention is exerciſed to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reaſon why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit as lands in equal quantity, and of the ſame quality upon the Hudſon. If the preceding obſervations be

* Morſe's American Geography.
† Morſe. ‡ Morſe.

juſt, improvements will keep pace with population and increaſing value of lands.

Improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow, improvements in agriculture. This obſervation applies more particularly to the country. The city of New York contains a great number of people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures, viz. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf ſugar, bread, beer, ſhoes and boots, ſadlery, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, mathematical and muſical inſtruments, ſhips, and every thing neceſſary for their equipment. A glaſs work and ſeveral iron works have been eſtabliſhed*.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] It is ordained by the conſtitution of New York, that the free exerciſe and enjoyment of religious profeſſion and worſhip, without diſcrimination or preference, ſhall for ever be allowed within that ſtate to all mankind.

A college was erected at New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but, as the aſſembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reaſon never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public ſeminary in ſo populous a city. It is now called Columbia College. It has about one hundred and forty ſtudents in the four claſſes, beſides medical ſtudents.

A college called Union College was eſtabliſhed at Schenectady in 1794; which has now about forty ſtudents in the four claſſes. Beſides theſe there are diſperſed in different parts of the ſtate fourteen incorporated academies, containing in the whole as many as ſix or ſeven hundred ſtudents. It is alſo provided that ſchools ſhall be eſtabliſhed, one, at leaſt, in every diſtrict of four ſquare miles.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the firſt Europeans who formed ſettlements on this part of the American coaſt. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th to the 41ſt degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conqueſt in 1664; and it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our poſſeſſion before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent dated March 20, 1664. On James's acceſſion to the throne, the right to New York became veſted in the crown, and it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in ſeven years, elected their repreſentatives to ſerve in general aſſemblies. Theſe three branches of the legiſlature (anſwering to thoſe of Great Britain) had power to make any laws not repugnant to thoſe of England: but, in order to their being valid, the royal aſſent to them was firſt to be obtained.

By the conſtitution of the ſtate of New York, eſtabliſhed in 1777, the ſupreme legiſlative power is veſted in two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies of men; the one called "The Aſſembly of the State of New York," conſiſting of ſeventy members annually choſen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York," conſiſting of twenty-four, for four years, who together form the legiſlature, and meet once at leaſt in every year for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſupreme executive power is veſted in a governor, who continues in office three years, aſſiſted by four counſellors choſen by and from the ſenate. Every male in-

* Morſe's American Geography.

habitant of full age, who ſhall poſſeſs a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty ſhillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the ſtate for ſix months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the aſſembly; but thoſe who vote for the governor, and the members of the ſenate, are to be poſſeſſed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congreſs, the judges, &c. are to be choſen by ballot of the ſenate and aſſembly.

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# NEW JERSEY.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 160<br>Breadth 50 | between | 39 and 42 north lat.<br>74 and 76 weſt long. | 8,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the Weſt and South-weſt, by Delaware river and bay; on the South-eaſt and Eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound, which ſeparates Staten Iſland from the continent, and Hudſon's River, on the North.

| *Diſtricts.* | *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Eaſt Diviſion contains | Middleſex | Perth Amboy and New Brunſwick | |
| | Monmouth | Shrewſbury and Freehold | |
| | Eſſex | Elizabeth and Newark | |
| | Somerſet | Boundbrook | |
| | Bergen | Hakkenſak | |
| Weſt Diviſion contains | Burlington | BURLINGTON | 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. long. |
| | Glouceſter | Woodbury, and Glouceſter | |
| | Salem | Salem | |
| | Cumberland | Hopewell, Bridgetown | |
| | Cape May | None | |
| | Hunterdon | TRENTON | 40-15 N. lat. 74-15 W. long. |
| | Morris | Morriſtown | |
| | Suſſex | Newtown | |

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Delaware, Raritan, and Paſſaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract: the height of the rock from which the water falls is ſaid to be about ſeventy feet perpendicular, and the river there eighty yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the ſame with that of New York; the ſoil is various; at leaſt one-fourth part of the province is barren ſandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection. In this ſtate are ſeveral iron mines, and in Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] According to the preſent conſtitution

of this province, all perſons are allowed to worſhip God in the manner that is moſt agreeable to their own conſciences; nor is any perſon obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpoſe of building or repairing any church or churches, for the maintenance of any miniſter or miniſtry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himſelf to perform. There is to be no eſtabliſhment of any one religious ſect in this province in preference to another: and no proteſtant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college, called Naſſau Hall, was eſtabliſhed at the town of Princeton, in this province, by governor Belcher, in 1746, which has a power of conferring the ſame degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between eighty and a hundred ſtudents here, who come from all parts of the continent, ſome even from the extremities of it. There is another college at Brunſwick, called Queen's College, founded a little before the war, and in conſiderable repute.

POPULATION, TRADE, MANUFACTURES.] In 1790, the number of inhabitants in New Jerſey was 184,139, of whom 11,423 were ſlaves. The trade of this ſtate is carried on almoſt ſolely with and from thoſe two great commercial cities, New York on one ſide, and Philadelphia on the other, though it wants not good ports of its own: manufactures here have hitherto been inconſiderable, if we except the articles of iron, nails, and leather. The iron manufacture is, of all others, the greateſt ſource of wealth to the ſtate. In Morris county alone are no leſs than ſeven rich iron mines. In the whole ſtate it is ſuppoſed there is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar iron, and as many of pig iron, excluſive of hollow ware and various other caſtings, of which vaſt quantities are made.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Trenton is the largeſt town in, and the metropolis of, this ſtate; where the legiſlature ſtatedly meets, the ſupreme court ſits, and moſt of the public offices are kept. It contains between two and three hundred houſes, and about 2000 inhabitants.

Perth Amboy and Burlington were formerly the ſeats of government: the governor generally reſided in the latter, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Delaware, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as moſt on the continent, and the harbour is ſafe, and capacious enough to contain many large ſhips.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New Jerſey is part of that vaſt tract of land, which, we have obſerved, was given by king Charles II. to his brother James, duke of York; he ſold it, for a valuable conſideration, to lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret (from which it received its preſent name, becauſe Sir George had eſtates in the iſland of Jerſey), and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a ſurrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which ſhe accepted; after which it became a royal government.

By the new Charter of Rights, eſtabliſhed by the provincial congreſs, July 2, 1776, the government of New Jerſey is veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly. The members of the legiſlative council are to be freeholders, and worth at leaſt one thouſand pounds real and perſonal eſtate; and the members of the general aſſembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All the inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for repreſentatives in council and aſſembly, and for all other public officers. The elections of the governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly, are to be annual; the governor and lieutenant-governor to be choſen out of, and by, the aſſembly and

council. The judges of the ſupreme court are choſen for ſeven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

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# PENNSYLVANIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 290<br>Breadth 156 | between | 74 and 81 weſt longitude.<br>39 and 42 north latitude. | 45,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerſeys, on the Eaſt; and by Maryland, on the South and Weſt.

The ſtate of PENNSYLVANIA contains twenty-three counties:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Philadelphia | PHILADELPHIA (N. lat. 40. W. long. 75-20.) |
| Cheſter | Cheſter |
| Bucks | Newtown |
| Berks | Reading |
| Northampton | Eaſton |
| Lancaſter | Lancaſter |
| York | York |
| Cumberland | Carliſle |
| Montgomery | Norriſton |
| Dauphin | Louiſburg |
| Luzerne | Wilkſbarre |
| Northumberland | Sunbury |
| Franklin | Chamberſtown |
| Huntingdon | Huntingdon |
| Weſtmoreland | Greenſburg |
| Fayette | Union |
| Waſhington | Waſhington |
| Allegany | Pittſburg |
| Delaware | Cheſter |
| Mifflin | Lewiſton |
| Bedford* | Pedford |
| Somerſet | None |
| Lycoming | None |

RIVERS.] The rivers are, Delaware, which is navigable more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia. The Suſquehanna and Schuylkill are alſo navigable a conſiderable way up the country. Theſe rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this ſtate admirably ſuited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country, air, ſoil, and produce, do not materially differ

* This county was purchaſed from the Indians, in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and eſtabliſhed in 1771.

from thoſe of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is ſweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are ſo extremely cold and ſevere, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are almoſt intolerably hot; but the country is refreſhed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked, in general, that in all parts of the United States, from New York to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four ſpecies, all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But, whether from ſome fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the ſoil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deſerves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a ſort of wine with which they regale themſelves. It may alſo be obſerved of the timber of theſe ſtates, that towards the ſouth it is not ſo good for ſhipping as that of the more northern countries. The farther ſouthward you go, the timber becomes leſs compact, and rives eaſily; which property, as it renders it leſs ſerviceable for ſhips, makes it more uſeful for ſtaves.

ANIMALS.] Deers are found in great numbers in Pennſylvania; there are alſo beavers, otters, racoons, and martins. Buffaloes rarely croſs the Ohio, and elks ſeldom advance from the north. Panthers, wild cats, bears, foxes, and wolves, are not rare; the laſt do moſt miſchief, eſpecially in the winter; but the fur and ſkins of all are valuable. In the thick ſettlements, rabbits and ſquirrels are frequent; alſo muſk-rats in marſhes. Partridges are yet numerous, though the late hard winters have deſtroyed many. There are great numbers of wild turkeys in the new ſettlements; pheaſants and grouſe are become ſcarce. Pigeons, ducks, and wild geeſe, are generally found in plenty in their proper ſeaſons. Here are a great number of ſinging birds, as many migrate to this ſtate from the north and ſouth in certain ſeaſons.

ORIGIN AND CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of Pennſylvania are principally the deſcendants of Engliſh, Iriſh, and Germans, with ſome Scotch, Welſh, Swedes, and a few Dutch. There are alſo many of the Iriſh and Germans, who emigrated when young or middle-aged. The Friends and Epiſcopalians are chiefly of Engliſh extraction, and compoſe about one-third of the inhabitants. They live chiefly in the metropolis, and in the counties of Cheſter, Philadelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Iriſh are moſtly Preſbyterians, but ſome are Roman Catholics. The Germans compoſe about one-quarter of the inhabitants of Pennſylvania. They conſiſt of Lutherans, who are the moſt numerous ſect; Calviniſts, or Reformed Church; Moravians, Roman Catholics, Mennoniſts, Tunkers, and Zwingfelters, who are a ſpecies of Quakers. Theſe are all diſtinguiſhed for their temperance, induſtry, and economy. The Baptiſts, except the Mennoniſts and Tunker Baptiſts, are chiefly deſcended of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous. A proportionate aſſemblage of the national prejudices, the manners, cuſtoms, religions, and political ſentiments of all theſe will form the Pennſylvanian character.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of Pennſylvania in 1790 amounted to 434,373, including 3,737 ſlaves; or about ten for every ſquare mile.

The commerce of Pennſylvania is very flouriſhing. It is principally carried on from Philadelphia; and there are few commercial ports in the world where ſhips from Philadelphia may not be found in ſome ſeaſon

of the year. The number of veſſels which entered this port in 1786 was 1910, and, in 1795, 1620. The clearances in the latter year were 1789. It is not mentioned, however, how many of theſe were coaſting veſſels. The number of veſſels built in 1795 was 31, of which 23 were ſhips and brigs. In the year 1792, Philadelphia ſhipped 420,000 barrels of flour and middlings. The value of exports from the State of Pennſylvania in the year ending September 30, 1791, was 3,436,092 dollars; and, in 1795, 11,518,260 dollars. The exiſting war has occaſioned ſome extraordinary articles in the exportation of late; coffee and other commodities having been carried to Philadelphia, and thence to Hamburgh, as neutral ports.

The manufactures of this ſtate are of numerous kinds. Iron-works are of long ſtanding, and their products increaſe in quantity, and improve in quality. There are alſo improving manufactures of leather, paper, cotton, gun-powder, copper, lead, tin, and earthen-ware.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] Liberty of conſcience is allowed in this ſtate in its fulleſt extent. The proportions in which the ſeveral different ſects prevail, may be eſtimated from the number of congregations in Pennſylvania, as given by Doctor Morſe, viz. Preſbyterians, 86; German Calviniſts, 84; nearly 84 of German Lutherans; Friends, or Quakers, 54; Epiſcopalians, 26; Baptiſts, 15; Roman Catholics, 11; Scotch Preſbyterians, 8; Free Quakers, 1; Univerſaliſts, 1; Covenanters, 1; Methodiſts, 3 or 4; and a Jewiſh ſynagogue; the whole amounting to 384.

There is a univerſity at Philadelphia, and colleges at Carliſle and Lancaſter. The Epiſcopalians have an academy at York-town, in York county. There are alſo academies at German-town, at Pittſburg, at Waſhington, at Allen's-town, and other places: theſe are endowed by donations from the legiſlature, and by liberal contributions of individuals. The legiſlature have alſo reſerved 60,000 acres of the public lands for public ſchools. The United Brethren, or Moravians, have academies at Bethlehem and Nazareth, on the beſt eſtabliſhment of any ſchools perhaps in America. The literary, humane, and other uſeful ſocieties, are more numerous and flouriſhing in Pennſylvania than in any of the ſixteen ſtates. Among theſe is one which deſerves a particular notice, which is the *American Philoſophical Society*, held at Philadelphia. This ſociety was formed, January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary ſocieties that had ſubſiſted for ſome time, and were created one body corporate and politic, with ſuch powers, privileges, and immunities, as are neceſſary for anſwering the valuable purpoſe which the ſociety had originally in view, by a charter granted by the common-wealth of Pennſylvania on the 15th of March 1780. This ſociety has publiſhed two very valuable volumes of their tranſactions; one in 1771, and the other in 1786. In 1771 it conſiſted of nearly 300 members, and upwards of 120 have ſince been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Pennſylvania contains ſeveral very conſiderable towns, ſuch as Lancaſter, Carliſle, and Pittſburg. But the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, eclipſes the reſt, and merits particular attention. It was built after the plan of the famous William Penn, the founder and legiſlator of this colony. It is ſituated about 120 miles from the ſea, by the courſe of the bay and river; and 55 or 60 in the ſouth-eaſtward direction. The ground-plot of the city is an oblong ſquare, about one mile from north to ſouth, and two from eaſt

to weſt; lying in the narroweſt part of the iſthmus, between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence, where the Delaware is a mile broad. The city is interſected by a great number of ſtreets croſſing each other at right angles. Of theſe there were originally nine, which extended from the Delaware to the Schuylkill, and were croſſed by twenty-three others running north and ſouth. The number of ſquares formed by theſe ſtreets, in the original plan, was 184; but as ſeveral of them have lately been interſected by new ſtreets, their number now amounts to 304; and ſeveral of theſe are again interſected by lanes and alleys. Market-ſtreet is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole length of the city, from river to river; and near the middle is interſected by Broad-ſtreet, 113 feet wide, running nearly north and ſouth. The other ſtreets are 50 feet wide, except Arch-ſtreet, which is 65 feet. Moſt of the city is well paved with foot-paths of brick, furniſhed with common ſewers and gutters, ſo that the ſtreets are in general kept very clean and neat. The houſes in the city and ſuburbs are generally of brick, three ſtories high, in a plain decent ſtyle, without much diſplay of ornament. In 1794 there were 9000 houſes in this city, and 400 which were building; and the preſent number of inhabitants may be eſtimated at about 55,000. Philadelphia contains 27 places of public worſhip, belonging to different ſects. The ſtate-houſe is a magnificent building, erected in 1735. In 1787 an elegant court-houſe, or town hall, was built on the left of the ſtate-houſe, and, on the right, a philoſophical hall. Here likewiſe is a public obſervatory, and ſeveral other public buildings. This city is governed by a mayor, recorder, fifteen aldermen, and thirty common council men, according to its preſent charter, granted in the year 1789. A malignant fever raged here in 1793, which in the courſe of Auguſt and three ſucceeding months carried off 4031 of the inhabitants; and this fatal diſtemper for ſeveral years returned annually.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. When theſe nations, however, were expelled from New York by the Engliſh, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the iſland of Jamaica (under the auſpices of Cromwell), being in favour with Charles II. obtained a promiſe of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his ſon, the celebrated quaker, availed himſelf of this promiſe, and, after much court-ſolicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine Mr. Penn be little known but to thoſe of his own perſuaſion, his reputation, in a character no leſs reſpectable, is univerſal among all civiliſed nations. The circumſtances of the times engaged vaſt numbers to follow him into his new ſettlement, to avoid the perſecutions to which the Quakers, like other ſectaries, were then expoſed; but it was to his own wiſdom and ability that they are indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on ſo reſpectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmoſt latitude, was laid down by that great man as the chief and only foundation of all his inſtitutions. Chriſtians of all denominations might not only live unmoleſted, but have a ſhare in the government of the colony. No laws could be made but by the conſent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn ſubjected to regulations. The affairsof widows and orphans were to be inquired into by

a court conſtituted for that purpoſe. The cauſes between man and man were not be ſubjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wiſe and honeſt arbitrators. His benevolence and generoſity extended alſo to the Indian nations: inſtead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchaſed of theſe people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and oldeſt right, was veſted in them. William Penn, in ſhort, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his ſtatue placed next to thoſe of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the ſolid baſis of equity, ſtill maintain their force; and, as a proof of their effects, it is only neceſſary to mention, that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four ſhillings reſerved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted were at twenty pounds the thouſand acres, with one ſhilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother country, land rented at twenty ſhillings the acre, and, even at ſeveral miles diſtance from that city, ſold at twenty years purchaſe.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congreſs of America met in September 1774: and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there till the king's troops made themſelves maſters of that city, on the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778 the Britiſh troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the reſidence of the congreſs.

In 1776 the repreſentatives of the freemen of Pennſylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new conſtitution of government for that colony. According to the actual conſtitution, the legiſlative power is adminiſtered by a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives; the executive by a governor; and the judiciary by a ſupreme court, a court of common-pleas, and a court of quarter-ſeſſions of the peace. The legiſlature and governor are elected by the freemen; the governor for three years; the repreſentatives, and a fourth part of the ſenate, annually. The number of repreſentatives muſt not be leſs than ſixty, nor exceed one hundred; nor that of ſenators leſs than a fourth, nor greater than a third-part of the number of repreſentatives. The electors of the magiſtrates muſt have attained the age of twenty-one, have reſided in the ſtate two years, and paid taxes. The repreſentatives muſt have been inhabitants of the ſtate three years, and, the laſt year previous to their election, have reſided in the county which chooſes them. The qualifications of twenty-five years of age, and of four years reſidence, are required in ſenators: and the governor muſt have attained the age of thirty, and have reſided in the ſtate ſeven years; and he is not eligible more than nine years in twelve. The ſenators are divided by lot into four claſſes; and the ſeats of one claſs vacated and re-filled yearly.

# DELAWARE.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length 92 | between | 38 29 and 39 54 north latitude | | 2000 |
| Breadth 24 | | 75 2 and 75 48 weſt longitude | | |

BOUNDARIES.] DELAWARE is bounded on the Eaſt by the river and bay of the ſame name, and the Atlantic Ocean; on the North, by Pennſylvania; and on the South, and Weſt by Maryland. It is divided into the three following counties:

| Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| Newcaſtle | Newcaſtle, Wilmington |
| Kent | Dover |
| Suſſex | Lewes |

RIVERS.] In the ſouthern and weſtern parts of this ſtate, ſpring the head-waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Cheſter, Saſſafras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Cheſapeak bay. Some of them are navigable twenty or thirty miles into the country for veſſels of fifty or ſixty tons.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air is in general healthy; but in ſome parts, where there are large quantities of ſtagnant water, it is leſs ſalubrious. The ſoil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, adapted to the various purpoſes of agriculture. From thence to the ſwamps the ſoil is light, ſandy, and of an inferior quality. Wheat grows here in ſuch perfection, as not only to be particularly ſought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the Union, but alſo to be diſtinguiſhed and preferred for its ſuperior qualities in foreign markets. Beſides wheat, this ſtate generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buck-wheat, and potatoes. There are few minerals in this ſtate, except iron: large quantities of bog iron ore, very fit for caſtings, are found in Suſſex county, among the branches of Nanticoke river.

POPULATION, TRADE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The number of inhabitants in Delaware in 1790 was 59,094, of whom 887 were ſlaves. The ſtaple commodity of this ſtate is wheat, which is manufactured into flour, and exported in large quantities. Beſides wheat and flour, lumber and various other articles are exported from Delaware. The amount of exports from this ſtate, in the year 1795, was 158,041 dollars. Among other branches of induſtry exerciſed in and near Wilmington, are a cotton manufactory, and a bolting manufactory. In the county of Newcaſtle are ſeveral fulling-mills, two ſnuff-mills, one ſlitting-mill, four paper-mills, and ſixty mills for grinding grain, all turned by water.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] In this ſtate there are a variety of religious denominations. Of the Preſbyterian ſect there are 24 churches; of the Epiſcopal, 14; of the Baptiſts, 7; of the Methodiſts, a conſiderable number. Beſides theſe there is a Swediſh church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldeſt churches in the United States.

There is no college in this ſtate. There is an academy at Newark, incorporated in 1769. The legiſlature, in January 1796, paſſed an act to create a fund for the eſtabliſhment of ſchools throughout the ſtate.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Dover, being the ſeat of government, is conſidered as the metropolis, though it contains but about a hundred houſes; but Wilmington is the moſt conſiderable town in the ſtate, containing 600 houſes, and 3000 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in ſquares, ſimilar to Philadelphia.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] Settlements were made here by the Dutch about the year 1623, and by the Swedes about the year 1627. Their ſettlements were comprehended in the grant to the duke of York; and William Penn united them to his government by purchaſe. They were afterwards ſeparated in ſome meaſure from Pennſylvania, and denominated the *Three Lower Counties*. They had their own aſſemblies, but the governor of Pennſylvania uſed to attend, as he did in his own proper government. At the late revolution, the three counties were erected into a ſovereign ſtate, having a governor, ſenate, and houſe of repreſentatives. The ſenators are nine in number, three from each county; and the repreſentatives twenty-ſeven. The former muſt be twenty-ſeven years old, and the latter twenty-four; and ſenators muſt have a freehold of two hundred acres, or real and perſonal eſtate to the value of one thouſand pounds. The governor is not eligible more than three years in ſix. In other particulars the conſtitution of Delaware almoſt exactly agrees with that of Pennſylvania.

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# MARYLAND.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 134 | between | 75 and 80 weſt longitude | 14,000 |
| Breadth | 110 | | 38 and 40 north latitude | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Pennſylvania, on the North; by the Delaware ſtate, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the Eaſt: by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the Weſt.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Cheſapeak, viz. 1. the eaſtern; and, 2. the weſtern diviſion.

| Diviſions. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The Eaſt Diviſion contains the counties of ..... | Worceſter ..... | Princeſs Anne |
| | Somerſet ..... | Snow Hill |
| | Dorſet ..... | Dorſet, or Dorcheſter |
| | Talbot ..... | Oxford |
| | Cecil ..... | |
| | Queen Anne's ..... | Queen's Town |
| | Kent ..... | Cheſter |
| | Caroline ..... | Danton |

| Diviſions. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The Weſt diviſion contains - - - | St. Mary's | St. Mary |
| | Charles | Briſtol |
| | Prince George | Maſterkout |
| | Calvert | Abington |
| | Ann Arundel | ANNAPOLIS, W. lon. 76-50. N. lat. 39. |
| | Baltimore | Baltimore |
| | Frederic | Frederic Town |
| | Waſhington | Elizabeth Town |
| | Montgomery | |
| | Hartford | |
| | Allegany | Cumberland |

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vaſt number of navigable creeks and rivers The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoke, Patuxent, Choptank, Severn, and Saſſafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE. In theſe particulars this province has nothing remarkable by which it may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe already deſcribed. The hills in the inland country are of ſo eaſy aſcent, that they rather ſeem an artificial than a natural production. The climate is generally mild, and agreeably ſuited to agricultural productions and a great variety of fruit-trees. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marſhes and ſtagnant waters, they are, as in the other ſouthern ſtates, ſubject to intermittents. The vaſt number of rivers diffuſes fertility through the ſoil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco and wheat (which are the ſtaple commodities of that country), hemp, Indian corn, grain, &c.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of inhabitants has of late years greatly increaſed, amounting in 1790 to 319,728, of whom 103,036 are ſlaves; which is nearly 34 for every ſquare mile.

The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other ſtates, with the Weſt Indies, and with ſome parts of Europe. To theſe places they ſend annually about 30.000 hogſheads of tobacco, beſides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig-iron, lumber, and corn-beans, pork, and flax-ſeed in ſmall quantities: and receive in return, cloathing for themſelves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, ſpirits, ſugars, and other Weſt-India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.—The total amount of exports from Baltimore in 1790 was 2,027,777 dollars, and in 1795, 5,811,379 dollars. In the year 1791 the quantity of wheat exported was 205,571 buſhels.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The Roman Catholics, who were the firſt ſettlers in Maryland, are the moſt numerous religious ſect. Beſides theſe there are Proteſtants, Epiſcopalians, Engliſh, Scotch and Iriſh Preſbyterians, German Calviniſts, German Lutherans, Friends, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, Mennoniſts, Nicolites, or new Quakers; who all enjoy liberty of conſcience. The ſeminaries of learning are as follow: Waſhington Academy, in Somerſet county, which was inſtituted by law in 1779. Waſhington College, inſtituted at Cheſter-town in Kent county in 1782. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this inſtitution, of 1250l. a year currency. St. John's College was inſtituted in 1784, to which a permanent fund is aſſigned of 175l. a year. This college is to be at Annapolis, where a building is now prepared for it.

Very liberal ſubſcriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on theſe ſeminaries. The two colleges conſtitute one univerſity, by the name of "The univerſity of Maryland," whereof the governor of the ſtate for the time being is chancellor, and the principal of one of them vice-chancellor. The Roman-catholics have alſo erected a college at George town on Patowmac river for the promotion of general literature. In 1785 the Methodiſts inſtituted a college at Abington in Hartford county, by the name of Cokeſbury College.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Annapolis, the capital of Maryland, is a ſmall but well ſituated town upon the river Patuxent. It was formerly called Severn, which name, in the year 1694, was, by an act of the aſſembly of Maryland, changed into Annapolis. It is ſituated on a peninſula formed by the river, and two ſmall creeks, and affords a beautiful proſpect of Cheſapeak bay, and the eaſtern ſhore beyond it. This city is of little note in the commercial world; but is the wealthieſt town of its ſize in the United States. The houſes, about three hundred in number, are ſpacious and elegant, and indicate great wealth. The ſtate-houſe is the nobleſt building of the kind in the Union. It ſtands in the centre of the city, from which point the ſtreets diverge in every direction like radii.

Baltimore is the largeſt town in the State of Maryland: in ſize it is the fourth and in commerce the fifth in rank in the United States. It is ſituated on the north ſide of Patapſco river, at a ſmall diſtance from its junction with the Cheſapeak. The town is built around what is called the baſon, reckoned one of the fineſt harbours in America. The number of the inhabitants of the town and precincts in 1791 was 13,503, including 1255 ſlaves, and they muſt have greatly increaſed ſince.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] Maryland, like the provinces we have formerly deſcribed, owes its ſettlement to religious conſiderations. As they, however, were peopled by Proteſtants, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This ſect, towards the cloſe of Charles the Firſt's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the Engliſh nation; and the laws in force againſt the Papiſts were executed with great ſeverity. This in part aroſe from an opinion, that the court was too favourably diſpoſed towards this form of religion. It is certain that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman Catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the moſt eminent in great favour with the court, and on that account moſt odious to the generality of the Engliſh. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was conſidered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. of France, and ſpouſe to king Charles. The year following, about 200 popiſh families, ſome of conſiderable diſtinction, embarked with Lord Baltimore, to enter into poſſeſſion of this new territory. Theſe ſettlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which diſtinguiſh gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an eaſy price, from the native Indians; they even lived with them for ſome time in the ſame city; and the ſame harmony continued to ſubſiſt between the two nations, until the Indians were impoſed on by the malicious inſinuations of ſome planters in Virginia, who envied the proſperity of this popiſh colony, and inflamed the Indians againſt them, by ill-grounded reports, ſuch as were ſufficient to ſtir up the reſentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reaſon to be ſo. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own ſafety on this occaſion. Though they continued their friendly intercourſe with the natives, they took care to

erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities; the defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England, of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But, during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was deprived of his rights, and a new governor, appointed by the protector, substituted in his room. At the restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony increased and flourished, and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expense.

At the revolution, lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman-catholic. But, after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country exactly resembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietor, and only confirmed by the crown. The government of Maryland is now vested in a governor, senate of fifteen, and house of delegates; all which are to be chosen annually. The governor is elected by ballot, by the senate and house of delegates; and cannot continue in office longer than three years successively. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates, which is *viva voce*. All persons appointed to any office of profit and trust, are to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion.

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# VIRGINIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 446<br>Breadth 224 | between | 75 and 83 west longitude<br>36 and 40 north latitude | 70,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania, and the Ohio river, on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the East; by North Carolina, on the South; and by Kentucky, on the West.

Virginia is divided into 82 counties, as follows:

| Situation. | Counties. | Situation. | Counties. |
|---|---|---|---|
| West of the Blue Ridge. | Ohio<br>Monongalia<br>Washington<br>Montgomery<br>Wythe | Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide-waters. | Loudoun<br>Fauquier<br>Culpepper<br>Spotsylvania<br>Orange |

| Situation. | Counties. |
|---|---|
| West of the Blue Ridge | Botetourt |
| | Green-briar |
| | Kanawa |
| | Hampshire |
| | Berkley |
| | Frederick |
| | Shenandoah |
| | Rockingham |
| | Augusta |
| | Rockbridge |
| Between the Blue Ridge and Tide-waters. | Charlotte |
| | Prince Edward |
| | Cumberland |
| | Powhatan |
| | Amelia |
| | Nottaway |
| | Lunenburg |
| | Mecklenburgh |
| | Brunswick |
| Between James river and Carolina. | Greensville |
| | Dinwiddie |
| | Chesterfield |
| | Prince George |
| | Surry |
| | Suffex |
| | Southampton |
| | Isle of Wight |
| | Nansemond |
| | Norfolk |
| | Princess Ann |
| Between James and York rivers. | Henrico |
| | Hanover |
| | New Kent |
| | Charles City |
| | James City |
| | Williamsburgh |
| | York |
| | Warwick |
| | Elizabeth City |
| Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide-waters. | Louisa |
| | Goochland |
| | Flavinia |
| | Albemarle |
| | Amherst |
| | Buckingham |
| | Bedford |
| | Henry |
| | Pittsylvania |
| | Halifax |
| Between York and Rappahannoc rivers. | Caroline |
| | King William |
| | King and Queen |
| | Essex |
| | Middlesex |
| | Gloucester |
| | Fairfax |
| Between Rappahannoc and Patowmac rivers. | Prince William |
| | Stafford |
| | King George |
| | Richmond |
| | Westmoreland |
| | Northumberland |
| | Lancaster |
| Eastern shore | Accomac |
| | Northampton |

The following are new Counties.

Campbell
Franklin
Harrison
Randolph
Hardy
Pendleton
Russell*.

CAPES, BAYS, AND RIVERS.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a strait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeak, one of the largest and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the south to the north, is about eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is the narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannoc, and the Patowmac: these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, without all manner of doubt, the country

* Morse, vol. i. pp. 532, 533, 534.

in the world of all others of the moſt convenient navigation. It has been obſerved, and the obſervation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that you are very near the ſhore before you can diſcover land from the maſt-head. The lofty trees, which cover the ſoil, gradually riſe as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting proſpect. You travel 100 miles into the country without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extenſive coaſt of North America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In ſummer the heats here are exceſſive, though not without refreſhing breezes from the ſea. The weather is changeable, and the change is ſudden and violent. Their winter froſts come on without the leaſt warning. To a warm day there ſometimes ſucceeds ſuch an intenſe cold in the evening as to freeze over the largeſt rivers.

The air and ſeaſons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture. In winter, they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleaſant. Their ſpring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June the heat increaſes; and the ſummer is much like ours, being refreſhed with gentle breezes from the ſea, that riſe about nine o'clock, and decreaſe or increaſe as the ſun riſes or falls. In July and Auguſt theſe breezes ceaſe, and the air becomes ſtagnant, and violently hot: in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occaſion all the train of diſeaſes incident to a moiſt climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any miſchief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the ſea-ſhore and the banks of the rivers, the ſoil of Virginia conſiſts of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a diſtance from the water there is a lightneſs and ſandineſs of the ſoil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and, aided by a kindly ſun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been ſaid of the ſoil and climate, it is eaſy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The foreſts are covered with all ſorts of lofty trees, and no underwood or buſhes grow beneath; ſo that people travel with eaſe through the foreſts on horſeback, under a fine ſhade to defend them from the ſun: the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering ſhrubs of the richeſt colours and moſt fragrant ſcent. Silk grows ſpontaneouſly in many places, the fibres of which are as ſtrong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the ſnake-root and ginſeng, are here in great plenty. There is no ſort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are ſo engroſſed with the culture of the tobacco plant, that they think, if corn ſufficient for their ſupport can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own conſumption, but for exportation, though not in ſuch quantities as might be expected from the nature of the ſoil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity

ANIMALS.] We ſhall here obſerve, that there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, nor hogs in America before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied ſo extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the Southern Colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the Colonies, beef and pork were ſold here from one penny to two-pence a pound; their fatteſt

pullets at ſix-pence a-piece; chickens at three or four ſhillings a dozen; geeſe at ten pence: and turkeys at eighteen-pence a-piece. But fiſh and wild-fowl were ſtill cheaper in the ſeaſon, and deer were ſold from five to ten ſhillings a-piece. This eſtimate may ſerve for the other American colonies, where proviſions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in ſome ſtill lower. Beſides the animals tranſported from Europe, thoſe natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a ſort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewiſe that ſingular animal called the opoſſum, which ſeems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix in his Hiſtory of Canada. It is about the ſize of a cat; and, beſides the belly, common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture towards the hinder legs, which diſcovers a great number of teats on the uſual parts of the common belly. Upon theſe, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang, like fruit upon the ſtalk, until they grow to a certain bulk and weight; when they drop off, and are received into the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all ſorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, whoſe plumage is crimſon and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming-bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, all arrayed in ſcarlet, green, and gold. It ſips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nouriſhment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Virginia has produced ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed actors in effecting the revolution in America. Her political and military character will rank among the firſt in the page of hiſtory. But it is to be obſerved, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public tranſactions, and who, in ſhort, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themſelves with politics, ſo that their government, though nominally republican, is in fact oligarchal, or ariſtocratical.

Several travellers give but a very indifferent account of the generality of the people of this ſtate. The young men, obſerves one, generally ſpeaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horſe-jockies. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the diſcoveries of a Newton, are conſidered as infinitely inferior to the accompliſhments of him who is expert in the management of a cock-fight, or dextrous in manœuvring at a horſe-race. A ſpirit for literary enquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently ſubordinate to a ſpirit of gambling and barbarous ſports. At almoſt every tavern or ordinary on the public road there is a billiard table, a back-gammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. To theſe public houſes the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood reſort, to *kill* time, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this buſineſs they are extremely expert, having been accuſtomed to it from their earlieſt youth. The paſſion for cock-fighting, a diverſion not only inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of ſenſe, is ſo predominant, that they even adverti ſe their matches in the public papers *. This diſſipation of manners is the conſequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African ſlavery.

* A traveller through Virginia obſerves: Three or four matches were advertiſed in the public prints at Williamſburg; and I was witneſs to five in the courſe of my travels from that to Port-Royal.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The inhabitants of Virginia amounted, according to the cenſus of 1790, to 747,610, of which 292,627 were negroes. The trade of Virginia conſiſts principally in tobacco, and different kinds of grain. In 1790, about 40,000 hogſheads of tobacco were exported; but its culture has ſince declined, and that of wheat taken place. The greateſt quantity of tobacco ever produced in this country was 70,000 hogſheads in the year 1758. The exports from this ſtate, in the year 1792, amounted to 3,549,499 dollars, and in 1796 to 5,268,615 dollars.

RELIGION AND COLLEGES.] The preſent denominations of Chriſtians in Virginia are, Preſbyterians, who are moſt numerous; Epiſcopalians, Baptiſts and Methodiſts. The firſt ſettlers were Epiſcopalians. There is a college at Williamſburg, founded by King William, and called William and Mary College. That monarch gave two thouſand pounds towards building it, and twenty thouſand acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of two thouſand pounds a year, and a duty of a penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a preſident, ſix profeſſors, and other officers, who are always appointed by the governors, or viſitors. The academy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college by the name of Hampden Sidney college. There are beſides a number of academies in different parts of Virginia: one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, one at Hanover, and others in other places.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Virginia is not divided into townſhips, nor are there any large towns, owing probably to the interſection of the country by navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevent the neceſſity of their going in queſt of it to a diſtance. The principal towns are, Richmond the capital, Williamſburg, and Norfolk. Richmond contains between 400 and 500 houſes, and about 4000 inhabitants. Here is a large ſtate-houſe, or capitol, lately erected on a hill which commands an extenſive proſpect of the lower part of the town, the river, and the adjacent country. Williamſburg was the ſeat of government till the year 1780. It contains about 100 houſes, and about 1400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in parallel ſtreets, with a pleaſant ſquare in the centre, of about ten acres, through which runs the principal ſtreet, about a mile in length, and more than 200 feet wide. Norfolk is the moſt conſiderable commercial town in Virginia. The harbour is ſafe and commodious, and large enough to contain 300 ſhips. In 1790 the number of inhabitants in Norfolk was 2959, including 1294 ſlaves.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This is the firſt country which the Engliſh planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other ſettlements, as has been already obſerved, from the diſcovery of Sebaſtian Cabot, who, in 1497, firſt made the northern continent of America, in the ſervice of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to ſettle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that ſir Walter Raleigh applied to court, and got together a company, which was compoſed of ſeveral perſons of diſtinction, and ſeveral eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and ſettle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the cloſe of the ſixteenth century, ſeveral attempts were made for ſettling this colony, before any proved ſucceſsful. The three firſt companies who ſailed to Virginia periſhed through hunger and diſeaſes, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almoſt to the ſame ſituation; and being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had ſet ſail for England, in deſpair of

living in ſuch an uncultivated country, inhabited by ſuch hoſtile and warlike ſavages. But, in the mouth of Cheſapeak Bay, they were met by lord Delaware, with a ſquadron loaded with proviſions, and with every thing neceſſary for their relief and defence. At his perſuaſion they returned: by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal government of the colony was ſettled within itſelf, and put on a reſpectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromiſing province of Virginia from the nobleſt motives, was compelled, by the decayed ſtate of his health, to return to England. He left behind him, however, his ſon as deputy; w th ſir Thomas Gates, ſir George Sommers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James Town, the firſt town built by the Engliſh in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flouriſh, and the true ſources of its wealth began to be diſcovered and improved. The firſt ſettlers, like thoſe of Maryland, were generally perſons of conſideration and diſtinction. It remained a ſteady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and, under the government of ſir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by ſtratagem than force, reduced them. After the reſtoration there is nothing very intereſting in the hiſtory of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himſelf of ſome diſcontents in the colony on account of reſtraints in trade, became very popular, and threw every thing into confuſion. His death, however, reſtored peace and unanimity.

The government of this province was not at firſt adapted to the principles of the Engliſh conſtitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a ſubject of Great Britain thinks himſelf entitled in every part of the globe. It was ſubject to a governor and council appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increaſed, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the conſtitution, by which the people, who had formerly no conſideration, were allowed to elect their repreſentatives from each county into which this country is divided, with privileges reſembling thoſe of the repreſentatives of the commons of England. Thus two houſes, the upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, were formed. The upper houſe, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleaſure, by the crown; they were ſtyled Honourable, and anſwered in ſome meaſure to the houſe of peers in the Britiſh conſtitution. The lower houſe was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor repreſenting the king, an upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, this government bore a ſtriking reſemblance to our own. When any bill had paſſed the two houſes, it came before the governor, who gave his aſſent or negative as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was tranſmitted to England, and his majeſty's pleaſure known on that ſubject. The upper houſe of aſſembly acted not only as a part of the legiſlature, but alſo as privy council to the governor, without whoſe concurrence he could do nothing of moment: it ſometimes acted as a court of chancery.

The preſent government of this province, as ſettled, in convention at Williamſburg, July 5th, 1776, is, that the legiſlative, executive, and judiciary departments be ſeparate and diſtinct; that the houſe of delegates be choſen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the diſtrict of Weſt Auguſta; and one repreſentative for the city of Williamſburg and town of Norfolk. The ſenate to conſiſt of twenty-

four members, alſo choſen by the freeholders of the ſtate, divided into twenty diſtricts. The executive is a governor and privy council, of eight members, choſen annually by the joint ballot of the general aſſembly of the ſtate, who alſo chooſe the delegates to congreſs, the judges, and other law officers, preſident, treaſurer, ſecretary, &c. juſtices, ſheriffs, and coroners, commiſſioned by the governor and council.

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# KENTUCKY.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 250<br>Breadth 200 | between | 81 and 89 Weſt Longitude<br>36 and 39 North Latitude | 50,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North Weſt, by the river Ohio; Weſt, by Cumberland river; South, by North Carolina; Eaſt, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due ſouth from its ſource, till it meets the northern boundary of North Carolina.

Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferſon. It has ſince been ſubdivided into the following fourteen:

| Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| Jefferſon, at the falls of the Ohio | Louiſville |
| Fayette | Lexington |
| Bourbon | Bourbon |
| Mercer | Harodſburgh |
| Nelſon | Bardſtown |
| Maddiſon | Milford |
| Lincoln | |
| Woodford | Verſailles |
| Maſon | Waſhington |
| Waſhington | |
| Clarke | Winchеſter |
| Scott | |
| Logan | |
| Franklin | Frankfort |

RIVERS, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The Ohio bounds Kentucky in its whole length. This ſtate is watered by many rivers, and the greateſt part of the ſoil is amazingly fertile, and is more temperate and healthy than any part in America. Here are buffaloes, bears, deer, elks, and many other animals common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them. The rivers abound in the fineſt fiſh; ſalmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook fiſh. The paroquet is common here; as is the ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitiſh colour, with a white plume; the bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like ours, but different in vociferation. It makes a ſurpriſing noiſe, like a man in diſtreſs. The natural curioſities of this country are aſtoniſhing and innumerable. Caves are found amazingly large, in ſome of which you may travel ſeveral miles under a fine lime-ſtone rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars. In moſt of them run ſtreams of water. Near Lexington are to be ſeen curious ſepulchres full of human ſkeletons. There are three ſprings or

ponds of bitumen near Green River, which diſcharge themſelves into a common reſervoir, and, when uſed in lamps, anſwer all the purpoſes of the fineſt oil *. There are many alum banks, and different places abounding with copper, which, when refined, is equal to any in the world. At a ſalt ſpring near the Ohio river very large bones have been found, far ſurpaſſing the ſize of any ſpecies of animals now in America: the head appears to have been conſiderably above three feet long. Dr. Hunter ſaid it could not be the elephant, and that, from the form of the teeth, it muſt have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been ſent to France and England. What animal this is, and by what means its remains are found in theſe regions, (where none ſuch now exiſt,) are very difficult queſtions, and variouſly reſolved. The variety of conjectures only ſerves to ſhow the futility of all.

The Miſſiſſippi and Ohio are the keys to the northern parts of the weſtern continent. The uſual route to Kentucky is from Philadelphia, or Baltimore, by the way of Pittſburg. The diſtance from the mouth of the Ohio to New Orleans, which does not exceed 460 miles in a ſtraight line, is 856 by water. The mouth empties itſelf by ſeveral channels into the Gulf of Mexico.

POPULATION.] An idea may be formed of the aſtoniſhing emigrations to this country, from the following account taken by the adjutant of the troops ſtationed at Fort Harmar, at the mouth of Muſkingum.

From the 10th of October 1786, to the 12th of May 1787, 177 boats, containing 2689 ſouls, 1353 horſes, 766 cattle, 112 waggons, and two phaetons, beſides a very conſiderable number that paſſed in the night unobſerved.

The population of this ſtate in 1790 was 73,677. It is aſſerted that upwards of 20,000 perſons emigrated hither in the year 1787. Theſe people, collected from different ſtates, of different manners, cuſtoms, religions, and political ſentiments, have not been long enough together to form a uniform national character. Among the ſettlers there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families from ſeveral of the ſtates; and they are in general more regular than people who ſettle new countries.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Kentucky as yet contains no very large towns; the principal are Lexington, Louiſville, and Waſhington. Lexington contains about 250 houſes, and about 2000 inhabitants.

RELIGION.] The Baptiſts are the moſt numerous religious ſect in Kentucky. There are ſeveral large congregations of Preſbyterians, and ſome few of other denominations.

HISTORY AND CONSTITUTION.] The hiſtory of this State is the ſame with that of Virginia, of which it made a part till the year 1792, when it was erected into an independent State. By the conſtitution of this State, formed and adopted in 1792, the legiſlative power is veſted in a general aſſembly, conſiſting of a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives; the ſupreme executive in a governor; the judiciary in the ſupreme court of appeals, and ſuch inferior courts as the legiſlature may eſtabliſh. The repreſentatives are choſen annually by the people; the ſenators and governor are choſen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpoſe; the judges are appointed, during good behaviour, by the governor, with the advice of the ſenate. The number of repreſentatives cannot exceed one hundred, nor be leſs than forty; and the ſenate, at firſt conſiſting of eleven, is to increaſe with the houſe of repreſentatives, in the ratio of one to four.

* Morſe's American Geography, p. 407.

# NORTH CAROLINA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 450<br>Breadth 180 | between | 76 and 83 West longitude<br>34 and 37 North latitude | 34,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean on the East; by South Carolina on the South; and the State of Tennessee on the West.

North Carolina is divided into eight districts, in which are 58 counties.

| Districts. | Counties. |
|---|---|
| Edenton, 9 Counties. | Chowan, Currituck, Cambden, Pasquetank, Perquimims, Gates, Hertford, Bertie, Tyrrel |
| Wilmington, 5 Counties. | New Hanover, Brunswick, Duplin, Bladen, Onslow |
| Newbern, 10 Counties. | Craven, Beaufort, Carteret, Johnson, Pitt, Glasgow, Lenoir, Wayne, Hyde, Jones |

The above three districts are on the sea-coast, extending from the Virginia line southward to South Carolina. They are called Eastern districts.

| Districts. | Counties. |
|---|---|
| Halifax, 7 Counties. | Halifax, Northampton, Martin, Edgecomb, Warren, Franklin, Nash |
| Hillsborough, 7 Counties. | Orange, Chatam, Granville, Person, Caswell, Wake, Randolph |
| Salisbury, 9 Counties. | Rowan, Cabarras, Mecklenburg, Rockingham, Iredell, Surry, Montgomery, Stokes, Guildford |
| Morgan, 5 Counties. | Burke, Rutherford, Lincoln, Wilkes, Buncomb |
| Fayette, 6 Counties. | Cumberland, Moore, Richmond, Robinson, Sampson, Anson |

Fayette, Hillsborough, and Halifax, are called middle districts, and Salisbury and Morgan western districts. These five districts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole state west of the three maritime districts before mentioned, and the greater part of them extend quite across the state from north to south.

RIVERS AND CAPES.] The principal rivers of North Carolina are the Chowan, and its branches, Roanoke, Tar, Neus, and Cape Fear, or Clarendon. Moſt of theſe and the ſmaller rivers have bars at their mouths, and the coaſt furniſhes no good harbours except Cape Fear. The principal capes are, Cape Fear, Cape Look-out, and Cape Hatteras.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The weſtern hilly parts of North Carolina are as healthy as any part of America; but in the flat country near the ſea-coaſt, the inhabitants, during the ſummer and autumn, are ſubject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous ſymptoms prevail. North Carolina, in its whole width, for ſixty miles from the ſea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in foreſts and is barren. On the banks of ſome of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good. The weſtern hilly parts of the ſtate are fertile, and full of ſprings and rivulets of pure water interſperſed; through the other parts are glades of rich ſwamp, and ridges of oak-land, of a black fertile ſoil. Sixty or eighty miles from the ſea, the country riſes into hills and mountains, as in South Carolina and Georgia. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country; Indian-corn, and pulſe of all kinds, in all parts. Cotton and hemp are alſo conſiderably cultivated, and might be raiſed in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly; the ſtalk dies with the froſt. The labour of one man will produce 1000 pounds in the ſeeds, or 250 fit for manufacturing. The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almoſt univerſally pitch-pine, which is a tall handſome tree, far ſuperior to the pitch-pine of the northern ſtates. The ſwamps abound with cypreſs and bay-trees.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF INHABITANTS.] The people of Carolina live in the ſame eaſy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already deſcribed. Poverty is here almoſt an entire ſtranger; and the planters are the moſt hoſpitable people that are to be met with, to all ſtrangers, and eſpecially to ſuch as, by accidents or misfortunes, are rendered incapable of providing for themſelves. The general topics of converſation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c.

Leſs attention and reſpect are paid to the women here than in thoſe parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made a greater progreſs in the arts of civiliſed life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by obſervation, that in proportion to the advancement of civiliſation, in the ſame proportion will reſpect for women be increaſed; ſo that the progreſs of civiliſation in countries, in ſtates, in towns, and in families, may be remarked by the degree of attention which is paid by huſbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

The North Carolinians are accuſed of being rather too deficient in the virtues of temperance and induſtry; and it is ſaid that a ſtrange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower claſs of people, before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, called *gouging**: but we have lately been informed, that in a particular county, where, at the court, twenty years ago, a

* The *delicate* and *entertaining diverſion*, with propriety called *gouging*, is thus deſcribed. When two *boxers* are wearied with fighting and bruiſing each other, they come, as it is called, to *cloſe quarters*, and each endeavours to twiſt his forefingers in the earlocks of his antagoniſt. When theſe are faſt clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the noſe, and the eyes *gently* turned out of their ſockets. The victor for his expertneſs receives ſhouts of applauſe from the ſporting throng, while his poor *eyeleſs* antagoniſt is laughed at for his misfortune.

day ſeldom paſſed without ten or fifteen boxing-matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight.

POPULATION AND TRADE.] The number of inhabitants in North Carolina in 1790 was 393,751, of whom 100,571 were ſlaves.

A great proportion of the produce of the back country, conſiſting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South Carolina and Virginia. The ſouthern interior counties carry their produce to Charles-town, and the northern to Peterſburg in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the ſtate are tar, pitch, turpentine, roſin, Indian corn, boards, ſcantling, ſtaves, ſhingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and ſome other articles; amounting in the year, ending September 30th, 1791, to 524,548 dollars. Their trade is chiefly with the Weſt Indies and the northern ſtates.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The Methodiſts and Baptiſts are numerous and increaſing in North Carolina; the Moravians have ſeveral flouriſhing ſettlements in the upper part of this ſtate; and the Friends or Quakers have a ſettlement in New-Garden, in Guildford county, and ſeveral congregations at Pequimins and Paſquotank.

The general aſſembly of North Carolina, in 1789, paſſed a law, incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each diſtrict, as truſtees of the univerſity of North Carolina. The general aſſembly, in December 1791, loaned 5,000l. to the truſtees, to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings. There is a very good academy at Warenton, another at Williamſborough, in Granville, and three or four others in the ſtate of conſiderable note.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Newbern is the largeſt town in North Carolina, and was formerly the reſidence of the governors. Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hilliſborough, Saliſbury, and Fayetteville, have each in their turns been the ſeat of the general aſſembly. Raleigh, ſituated near the centre of the ſtate, has lately been eſtabliſhed as the metropolis.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The hiſtory of North Carolina is leſs known than that of any other of the ſtates. From the beſt accounts that hiſtory affords, the firſt permanent ſettlement in North Carolina was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumſtances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The infant colony remained under the general government of South Carolina till about the year 1729, when ſeven of the proprietors, for a valuable conſideration, veſted their property and juriſdiction in the crown; and the colony was erected into a ſeparate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its preſent limits eſtabliſhed by an order of George II.

By the conſtitution of this ſtate, which was ratified in December 1776, all legiſlative authority is veſted in two diſtinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. a Senate and Houſe of Commons, which, when convened for buſineſs, are ſtyled the General Aſſembly. The ſenate is compoſed of repreſentatives, one from each county, choſen annually by ballot. The Houſe of Commons conſiſts of repreſentatives choſen in the ſame way, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Saliſbury, Hilliſborough, Halifax, and Fayetteville.

# SOUTH CAROLINA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Square Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 200, Breadth 125 | between | 32 and 35 North lat. / 78 and 81 West long. | 20,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by North Carolina on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean on the East; and on the South and South west by the Savannah river, and a branch of its head-waters, called Tugulo river, which divides this state from Georgia. South Carolina is divided into nine districts, in which are 38 counties, as follow:

| | Counties. |
|---|---|
| BEAUFORT DISTRICT, on the sea-coast, between Combahee and Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT. | Hilton, Lincoln, Granville, Shrewsbury |
| CHARLES-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief town CHARLES-TOWN. W. long. 80-39. N. lat. 32-45. | Charles-town, Washington, Marion, Berkeley, Colleton, Bartholomew |
| GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee river and North Carolina. Chief town GEORGE-TOWN. | Winyah, Williamsburg, Kingston, Liberty |
| CHERAWS DISTRICT, west of George-town district. Chief towns are GRENVILLE and CHATHAM. | Marlborough, Chesterfield, Darlington. |
| WASHINGTON DISTRICT. Chief town PINCKENSVILLE. | Pendleton, Greenville. |
| ORANGE DISTRICT, west of Beaufort district. Chief town ORANGEBURGH. | Lewisburg, Orange, Lexington, Winton |
| CAMDEN DISTRICT, west of George town district. Chief town CAMDEN. | Clarendon, Richland, Fairfield, Lleremont, Lancaster, Kershaw, Salem |
| NINETY-SIX DISTRICT, Chief town CAMBRIDGE. | Abbeville, Edgefield, Newbury, Laurens |
| PINCKNEY DISTRICT. Chief town PINCKNEYVILLE. | York, Chester, Union, Spartanburgh |

RIVERS AND CANALS.] South Carolina is watered by many navigable rivers, the principal of which are the Savannah, Edisto, Santee, Pedee, and their branches. The Santee is the largest river in the state. Those of a secondary size are the Wakkamaw, Black, Cooper, Ashepoo, and Combahee rivers. A canal of twenty-one miles in length, connecting Cooper and Santee rivers, is nearly completed, which it is estimated will cost 400,000 dollars; and another canal is soon to be begun, to unite the Edisto with the Ashley.

SEAS AND HARBOURS.] The only sea bordering on this is the Atlantic Ocean, which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of any great burden cannot approach it, except in some few places. The principal harbours in South Carolina are Winyaw, or George-town, Charles-town, and Port-Royal.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] The climate of South Carolina agrees in general with that of North Carolina and Virginia. The weather, as in all

this part of America, is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, but not to ſuch violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the froſts have never ſufficient ſtrength to reviſit the noon-day ſun, ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter in Virginia, flouriſh in South Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-town, and excellent in their kinds, both ſweet and ſour. The ſalubrity of the air is different in different parts of the ſtate. Along the ſea-coaſt, bilious diſeaſes, and fevers of various kinds, are prevalent between July and October; one cauſe of which is the low marſhy country, which is overflowed for the ſake of cultivating rice. The upper country, ſituated in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. The ſoil of South Carolina may be divided into four kinds: firſt, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Interſperſed among the pine barren are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth, but that of graſs. Theſe tracts are called *ſavannas*, conſtituting a ſecond kind of ſoil, good for grazing. The third kind is that of the ſwamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing, naturally, canes in great plenty, cypreſs bays, loblolly pines, &c. In theſe ſwamps rice is cultivated, which conſtitutes the ſtaple commodity of the ſtate. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and hickory lands, conſtitute the fourth kind of ſoil. The natural growth is oak, hickory, walnut, pine, and locuſt. On theſe lands, in the low country, Indian corn is principally cultivated; and in the back country, likewiſe, they raiſe tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and cotton. From experiments which have been made, it is well aſcertained that olives, ſilk, and madder, may be as abundantly produced in South Carolina, and we may add in Georgia alſo, as in the ſouth of France. There is little fruit in this ſtate, eſpecially in the lower parts of it. They have oranges, chiefly ſour, and figs in plenty; a few limes and lemons, pomegranates, pears, and peaches; apples are ſcarce, and are imported from the northern ſtates; melons, eſpecially water-melons, are raiſed here in great perfection.

Except the high hills of Santee, the Ridge, and ſome few other hills, this country is like what is called the upper country,—is one extenſive plain, till you reach the Tryon and Hog-back mountains, 220 miles north-weſt of Charles-town. The elevation of theſe mountains above their baſe is 3840 feet, and above the ſea-coaſt 4640. Their ſummit affords an extenſive view of this ſtate, North Carolina, and Georgia. The ſea-coaſt is bordered with a chain of fine iſlands, the ſoil of which is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo and cotton than the main land, and leſs ſuited to rice. The whole ſtate, to the diſtance of eighty or a hundred miles from the ſea, is low and level, almoſt without a pebble, and is little better than an unhealthy ſalt marſh; but the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles diſtance from Charles-town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpoſe of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleaſant to the eye than the variegated diſpoſition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholeſome, and the ſummer heat much more temperate than on the flat ſandy coaſt.

In South Carolina vegetation is incredibly quick. The climate and ſoil have ſomething in them ſo kindly, that the latter, when left to itſelf, naturally throws out an immenſe quantity of flowers and flowering ſhrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and

encouragement, ſilk, wine, and oil, might be produced in theſe colonies; of the firſt we have ſeen ſamples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat in the back parts yield a prodigious increaſe.

From what we have obſerved, it appears that the vegetable production of this ſtate are wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citron, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, caſſia, and pine-trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding ſilk-worms; ſarſaparilla, and pines, which yield turpentine, roſin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue of curing wounds; and another which yields a balm thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beſides theſe, that yield gums.

South Carolina abounds with precious ores, ſuch as gold, ſilver, lead, black-lead, copper, and iron; but it is the misfortune of thoſe who direct their purſuits in ſearch of them, that they are deficient in the knowledge of chemiſtry, and too frequently make uſe of improper menſtruums in extracting the reſpective metals. There are likewiſe rock-cryſtal, pyrites, marble beautifully variegated, abundance of chalk, crude alum, nitre, and vitriol. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent ſpirits, and mead as good as Malaga ſack. Of all theſe the three great ſtaple commodities at preſent are the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing ſurpriſes an European more at firſt ſight than the ſize of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from fifty to ſeventy feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above thirty-ſix feet in circumference. Of theſe trunks, when hollowed, the people of Charles-town, as well as the Indians, make canoes, which ſerve to tranſport proviſions and other goods from place to place; and ſome of them are ſo large, that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of theſe are likewiſe made curious pleaſure boats. There are alſo a variety of medicinal roots; among others, the rattle-ſnake root, ſo famous amongſt the Indians for the cure of poiſon; and the venereal root, which, under a vegetable regimen, will cure a confirmed lues.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from thoſe of Virginia; but in both the Carolinas they have a ſtill greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiouſly; to have 200 or 300 cows is very common, but ſome have 1000 or upwards. Theſe ramble all day at pleaſure in the foreſt; but their calves being ſeparated and kept in fenced paſtures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the ſame manner, and return like the cows; theſe are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horſes, in the woods.

POPULATION AND TRADE.] The number of inhabitants in South Carolina, in 1790, was 249,073, including 107,094 ſlaves.

The little attention that has been paid to manufactures occaſions a vaſt conſumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantity and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the ſtate, except when there have been large importations of negroes. The principal articles exported from this ſtate are rice, indigo, tobacco, ſkins of various kinds, beef, pork, cotton, pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, myrtle wax, lumber, naval ſtores, cork, leather, ſnake-root, and ginſeng. In the moſt ſucceſsful ſeaſons, there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,300,000 pounds of indigo, exported in a year. In 1791, the exports from this ſtate amounted to 1,693,267 dollars, and in 1795 to 5,998,492 dollars.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no dif-

putes between different religious ſects. They all agree to differ *. The upper parts of this ſtate are ſettled chiefly by preſbyterians, baptiſts, and methodiſts. There are ſome epiſcopalians, but the preſbyterians and independents are moſt numerous. The literature of this ſtate is but at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flouriſh. There are ſeveral reſpectable academies in Charles-town, one at Beaufort, on Port-Royal iſland, and ſeveral others in different parts of the ſtate. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law, one at Charles-town, one at Winnſborough, in the diſtrict of Camden, and the other at Cambridge in the diſtrict of Ninety-ſix. The legiſlature, in their ſeſſion in January 1795, appointed a committee to inquire into the practicability of, and to report a plan for, the eſtabliſhment of ſchools in the different parts of the ſtate.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns of South Carolina are, Charles-town, George-town, Columbia, and Camden. Charles-town is by far the moſt conſiderable town on the ſea-coaſt for an extent of 600 miles. It is the metropolis of South Carolina, and is admirably ſituated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ſhips twenty miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near forty. The harbour is good in every reſpect, but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more than 200 tons burthens, loaded, from entering. The fortifications, which were ſtrong, are now demoliſhed; the ſtreets are well cut; the houſes are large and well built; ſome of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handſome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. In 1787, it was computed that there were 1600 houſes in this city, and 15,000 inhabitants, including 5400 ſlaves. In 1791, there were 16,359 inhabitants, of whom 7684 were ſlaves. This city has often ſuffered much by fire: the laſt and moſt deſtructive happened in June 1796. The neighbourhood of Charles-town is beautiful beyond deſcription.

Columbia is a ſmall town in Kerſhaw county, on the eaſt ſide of the Congaree, juſt below the confluence of the Saluda and Broad rivers. It is now the ſeat of government; but the public offices have, in ſome meaſure, been divided, for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charles town.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The firſt Engliſh expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. None of them had ſucceſs till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and others of great diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, inveſting them with the property and juriſdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to ſuch as were willing to go over into the new ſettlement, and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compoſe for them.

They began their firſt ſettlement at a point of land towards the ſouthward of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-town, which was deſigned to be, what it is now, the capital of the province. In time, however, the diſputes between the church-of England men and diſſenters cauſed a total confuſion in the colony. This was rendered ſtill more intolerable by the incurſions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their inſolence and injuſtice. In order to prevent the fatal conſequences of theſe inteſtine diviſions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was paſſed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The

* Dr. Morſe.

lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000l. for both the property and jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony, in those respects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. Earl Grenville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which continued in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs, Carolina was divided into two districts, and two governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being restored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to breathe, and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

The government of South Carolina is vested in a governor, senate of thirty-seven, and a house of representatives of one hundred and twenty-four members.

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# GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 600<br>Breadth 250 | between | 80 and 91 West long.<br>30 and 35 North lat. | 60,000 |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. BOUNDED by South Carolina and Tenessee on the North and North-east; by the Atlantic Ocean on the East; by Florida, on the South; and by the river Mississippi on the west. Georgia was formerly divided into parishes, and afterwards into three districts, but lately into two districts, viz. Upper and Lower, which are subdivided into 24 counties, as follow:

| Districts. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Lower District | Camden | St. Patrick |
| | Glyn | Brunswick |
| | Liberty | Sunbury |
| | Chatham | SAVANNAH, N. lat. 32. 3. W. lon. 28. 24. |
| | Burke | LOUISVILLE, Waynesborough |
| | Effingham | Ebenezer |
| | M'Intosh, Scriven, Bryan | New Counties |
| Upper District | Richmond | AUGUSTA |
| | Washington | Colphinton |
| | Wilkes | Washington |
| | Greene | Greensborough |
| | Franklin, Montgomery, Hancock, Oglethorp, Elbert, Lincoln, Warren, Jefferson, Jackson, Bullock, Columbia | New Counties |

ISLANDS AND RIVERS.] The whole coaſt of Georgia is bordered with iſlands, the principal of which are Skidaway, Waſſaw, Offahaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl, and Cumberland. The chief rivers of Georgia are the Savannah, which ſeparates it from South Carolina, the Ogeechee, Alatamaha, Turtle River, Little Sitilla, Great Sitilla, St. Mary's, and Apalichicola.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate of Georgia is extremely temperate: the winters there are very mild and pleaſant. Snow is ſeldom or never ſeen; nor is vegetation often prevented by ſevere froſts. The ſoil and its fertility are various, according to ſituation and different improvements. The eaſtern part of the ſtate, between the mountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a tract of country more than 120 miles from north to ſouth, and from 50 to 80 eaſt and weſt, is level, without a hill or ſtone. At the diſtance of about 40 or 50 miles from the ſea-board or ſalt marſh, the lands begin to be more or leſs uneven, until they gradually riſe to mountains. The vaſt chain of the Alleghany, or Apalachian mountains, which commence with Kaats Kill, near Hudſon River, in the ſtate of New York, terminate in Georgia, ſixty miles ſouth of its northern boundary. From the foot of this mountain ſpreads a wide extended plain of the richeſt ſoil, and in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of moſt of the productions of the ſouth of Europe, and of the Eaſt Indies. Rice is at preſent the ſtaple commodity of the ſtate; tobacco, wheat, and indigo, are the other great articles of produce. Beſides theſe, the country yields cotton, ſilk, Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, olives, and pomegranates. Moſt of the tropical fruits would flouriſh in this ſtate with proper attention. The ſouth-weſtern parts of Georgia, and the parts of Eaſt and Weſt Florida which lie adjoining, will probably, ſays Dr. Morſe, become the vineyard of America. The foreſts conſiſt of oak, hickory, mulberry, pine, and cedar.

POPULATION AND TRADE.] The number of inhabitants in Georgia, according to the cenſus of 1790, amounted to 82,548, of whom 29,264 were ſlaves. The increaſe by emigration has been very conſiderable ſince.

The chief articles of export from Georgia are rice, tobacco, indigo, ſago, timber, naval ſtores, leather, deer-ſkins, ſnake-root, myrtle, and bees-wax, corn, and live-ſtock. The planters and farmers raiſe large ſtocks of cattle, from 1000 to 1500 head, and ſome more. The value in ſterling money of the exports of Georgia, in 1755, was 15,744 l.—in 1772, 121,677 l.—in 1791 value in dollars 491,472; and 1796, 950,158 dollars. In 1790, the tonnage employed in this ſtate was 28,540, and the number of American ſeamen 11,225. In return for her exports, Georgia receives Weſt-India goods, teas, wines, cloathing, and dry goods of all kinds: from the northern ſtates, cheeſe, fiſh, potatoes, cyder, and ſhoes. The imports and exports are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is the place where the principal commercial buſineſs of the ſtate is tranſacted.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The different religious ſects in Georgia are preſbyterians, epiſcopalians, baptiſts, and methodiſts. They have but few regular miniſters among them.

The literature of this ſtate, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan, which, if properly carried into effect, muſt be attended with great advantages. A college with ample and liberal endowments has been inſtituted at Louiſville. There is alſo proviſion made for the in-

ſtitution of an academy in each county of the ſtate, to be ſupported from the ſame funds, and conſidered as parts and members of the ſame inſtitution, under the general ſuperintendance and direction of a preſident and board of truſtees, ſelected for their literary accompliſhments from the different parts of the ſtate, and inveſted with the cuſtomary powers of corporations. This inſtitution is denominated *The Univerſity of Georgia*. The funds for the ſupport of literary inſtitutions are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to 50,000 acres, a great part of which is of the beſt quality, and at preſent very valuable; together with nearly 6,000l. ſterling, in bonds, houſes, and town lots in Auguſta. Other public property, to the amount of 1,000l. in each county, has been ſet apart for the purpoſes of building, and furniſhing their reſpective academies.

The rev. Mr. George Whitfield founded an orphan-houſe at Savannah, which, after his death, was converted into a college for the education of young men deſigned chiefly for the miniſtry. The funds for its ſupport are chiefly in rice-plantations and negroes. On the death of the Counteſs of Huntingdon, to whom Mr. Whitfield bequeathed this property as truſtee, the legiſlature, in the year 1792, paſſed a law veſting it in 13 commiſſioners, with powers to carry the original intention of Mr. Whitfield into execution; and in memory of the counteſs, the ſeminary is ſtyled Huntingdon College.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns in Georgia, are Savannah, Auguſta, and Louiſville. Savannah, formerly the capital of the ſtate, is commodiouſly ſituated both for inland and foreign trade, ſeventeen miles from the ſea, on a noble river of the ſame name, which is navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles. Ships of 300 tons burthen can lie within ſix yards of the town, and cloſe to a ſteep bank, extending near a mile along the river-ſide. The town is regularly built, in the form of a parallelogram, and contained, in 1787, 2,300 inhabitants. In the autumn of 1796 more than two-thirds of this town was conſumed by fire.

Auguſta, till lately the ſeat of government, is ſituated in a fertile plain on the ſouth weſt bank of the Savannah river, at a bend of the river, where it is near 500 yards broad. In 1787, it contained about 200 houſes.

Louiſville, now the metropolis of the ſtate, is ſituated on the river Ogeechee, ſeventy miles from its mouth. The convention for the reviſal of the conſtitution ſat in this town in May 1795, and appointed the records to be removed, and the legiſlature to meet here in future.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The ſettlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when ſeveral public-ſpirited noblemen, and others, from compaſſion to the poor of theſe kingdoms, ſubſcribed a conſiderable ſum, which, with 10,000l. from the government, was given to provide neceſſaries for ſuch poor perſons as were willing to tranſport themſelves into this province, and to ſubmit to the regulations impoſed on them. In proceſs of time, new ſums were raiſed, and new inhabitants ſent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 perſons were ſettled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected, that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed, as they were, at a great diſtance from their benefactors, and from the check and controul of thoſe who had a natural influence over them, would ſubmit to the magiſtrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themſelves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increaſed in number

and opulence, they thought it hard they ſhould be deprived of. From theſe corrupt ſources aroſe all the bad humours which tore to pieces this conſtitution of government. Diſſenſions of all kinds ſprang up, and the colony was on the brink of deſtruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the ſame footing with the Carolinas.

The government of Georgia is veſted in a governor, executive council of twelve, and houſe of aſſembly of ſeventy-two repreſentatives.

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# TENNESSEE.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 360 | between | 81 and 91 Weſt longitude. |
| Breadth | 105 | | 35 and 36 30′ North latitude. |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED, North, by Kentucky, and part of Virginia; Eaſt, by the Stone, Yellow, Iron, and Bald Mountains, which divide it from North Carolina; South, by South Carolina and Georgia; Weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi *.

This extenſive territory is divided into three diſtricts; Waſhington, Hamilton, and Mero; and fourteen counties as follow:

| | Counties. |
|---|---|
| Waſhington diſtrict | Waſhington |
| | Sullivan |
| | Greene |
| | Carter |
| | Hawkins |
| Hamilton diſtrict | Knox |
| | Jefferſon |
| | Sevier |
| | Blount |
| | Grainger |
| Mero diſtrict | Davidſon |
| | Sumner |
| | Robertſon |
| | Montgomery |

The population, according to an eſtimate made in November, 1795, was 77,262.

RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS.] The Tenneſſee, called alſo the Cherokee, and, abſurdly, the Hogohege river, is the largeſt branch of the Ohio. It riſes in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37°, and purſues a courſe of about 1000 miles ſouth and ſouth-weſt, nearly to latitude 34°, receiving from both ſides a number of large tributary ſtreams. It then wheels about to the north, in a circuitous courſe, and mingles with the Ohio, nearly ſixty miles from its mouth.

The Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent from the great Kanhaway to the Tenneſſee, conſiſts of the moſt ſtupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the weſtern country. In ſeveral parts of it, for miles, it is inacceſſible, even to the Indians on foot. In one place particularly, near the ſummit of the mountain, there is a moſt remarkable ledge of rocks, of about thirty miles in length, and 200 feet thick,

* About ſeven and a half millions of acres of this tract only have been yet purchaſed from the Indians.

ſhowing a perpendicular face to the ſouth-eaſt, more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this ſtupendous pile, according to a modern hypotheſis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tenneſſee to force their way.

The *Enchanted Mountain*, about two miles ſouth of Braſs-town, is famed for the curioſities on its rocks. There are, in ſeveral rocks, a number of impreſſions reſembling the tracks of turkeys, bears, horſes, and human beings, as viſible and perfect as they could be made in ſnow or ſand. The latter were remarkable for having uniformly ſix toes each, one only excepted, which appeared to be the print of a negro's foot. One of theſe tracks was very large; the length of the feet ſixteen inches; the diſtance of the extremities of the outer toes thirteen inches. One of the horſe-tracks was of an uncommon ſize. The tranſverſe and conjugate diameters were eight by ten inches; perhaps the horſe which the great warrior rode. What appears moſt in favour of their being the real tracks of the animals they repreſent, is the circumſtance of the horſes' feet having ſlipped ſeveral inches, and recovered again, and the figures having all the ſame direction, like the trail of a company on a journey. If it be a *luſus Naturæ*, the old dame never ſported more ſeriouſly: if the operation of chance, perhaps there was never more apparent deſign. If it be the work of art, it may be intended to perpetuate the remembrance of ſome remarkable event of war, or ſome battle fought there. The vaſt heaps of ſtones near the place, ſaid to be tombs of warriors ſlain in battle, ſeem to favour the latter ſuppoſition. The texture of the rocks is ſoft: the part on which the ſun had the greateſt influence, and which was the moſt indurated, could eaſily be cut with a knife, and appeared to be of the nature of the pipe-ſtone. Some of the Cherokees entertain an opinion that it always rains when any perſon viſits the place, as if ſympathetic Nature wept at the recollection of the dreadful cataſtrophe which theſe figures were intended to commemorate.

ANIMALS.] A few years ſince, this country abounded with large herds of wild animals, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill-diſpoſed among the firſt ſettlers deſtroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonneſs. They are ſtill to be found on ſome of the ſouth branches of Cumberland river. Elk or mooſe are ſeen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively ſcarce, ſo that no perſon makes a buſineſs of hunting them for their ſkins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

COEMMRCE.] This country furniſhes many valuable articles of export, ſuch as fine waggon and ſaddle horſes, beef, cattle, ginſeng, deer-ſkins, and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be tranſported by land; alſo iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great quantities, if the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who underſtand commerce, or are poſſeſſed of proper capitals; of courſe, it is badly managed.

RELIGION.] The preſbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Chriſtians in this diſtrict. They have a preſbytery, called the Abingdon preſbytery, eſtabliſhed by act of ſynod, which, in 1788, conſiſted of twenty-three large congregations.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Knoxville is the ſeat of government in Tenneſſee. It is regularly laid out, in a flouriſhing ſituation, and enjoys a commu-

nication with every part of the United States by poſt. A college has been eſtabliſhed here by government, called Blount college. The other principal towns are Naſhville and Joneſborough.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The eaſtern parts of this diſtrict were explored by colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, captain Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government), as early as between the years 1740 and 1750. In 1755, at the commencement of the French war, not more than fifty families had ſettled here, who were either deſtroyed or driven off by the Indians, before the cloſe of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the ſettlement of it recommenced; and, in 1773, the country as far weſt as the long iſland of Holſtein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, had become tolerably well peopled.

In 1785, in conformity to the reſolves of congreſs, of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this diſtrict eſſayed to form themſelves into a body politic, by the name of the State of FRANKLAND; but differing among themſelves, as to the form of government, and other matters, in the iſſue of which ſome blood was ſhed, and being oppoſed by ſome leading perſons in the eaſtern parts, the ſcheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1796, when a convention was held at Knoxville, and on the 6th of February the conſtitution of the State of Tenneſſee was ſigned by every member of it. Its principles promiſe to enſure the happineſs and proſperity of the people.

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## TERRITORY NORTH-WEST OF THE OHIO.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 900<br>Breadth 700 | between | 37 and 50 North latitude<br>81 and 98 Weſt longitude | 411,000 |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] THIS extenſive tract of country is bounded, North, by part of the northern boundary line of the United States; Eaſt, by the lakes, and Pennſylvania; South, by the Ohio river; Weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, eſtimates that this tract contains 263,040,000 acres, of which 43,040,000 are water.

That part of this territory in which the Indian title is extinguiſhed, by being purchaſed from them, and which is ſettling under the government of the United States, is divided into the following five counties:

| Counties. | When erected. | Counties. | When erected. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Waſhington, | July 26, 1788 | Knox, | June 20, 1790 |
| Hamilton, | Jan. 2, 1790 | Wayne, | 1796 |
| St. Clair, | April 27, 1790 | | |

RIVERS.] The Muſkingum is a gentle river, confined by banks ſo high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large bateaux and barges to the Three Legs, and by ſmall ones to the lake at its head. The Hockhock-

ing reſembles the Muſkingum, though ſomewhat inferior in ſize. The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extenſive navigation. One hundred and ſeventy-ſix miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Miſſouri, the Illinois empties itſelf into the Miſſiſſippi, from the north-eaſt, by a mouth about 400 yards wide.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c. } The lands on the various ſtreams which fall into the Ohio are interſperſed with all the variety of ſoil that conduces to pleaſantneſs of ſituation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people.

The ſugar-maple is a moſt valuable tree. Any number of inhabitants may be conſtantly ſupplied with a ſufficiency of ſugar by preſerving a few of theſe trees for the uſe of each family. One tree will yield about ten pounds of ſugar a year, and the labour is very trifling.

Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and ſmall and large ſtreams, ſuitable for mills and other purpoſes, are interſperſed, as if to prevent any deficiency of the conveniences of life.

No country is better ſtocked with wild game of every kind. Innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are ſheltered in the groves, and fed in the extenſive bottoms that every where abound; an unqueſtionable proof of the great fertility of the ſoil. Turkeys, geeſe, ducks, ſwans, teal, pheaſants, partridge, &c. are, from obſervation, believed to be in greater plenty here than the tame poultry are in any part of the old ſettlements in America.

The rivers are well ſtored with fiſh of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different ſizes: the cat-fiſh, which is the largeſt, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from ſix to eighty pounds.

The number of old forts found in this weſtern country are the admiration of the curious. They are moſtly of an oblong form, ſituated on ſtrong well-choſen ground, and contiguous to water. When, by whom, and for what purpoſe, theſe were thrown up, is uncertain. They are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the leaſt viſible difference in the age or ſize of the timber growing on or within theſe forts and that which grows without; and the natives have loſt all tradition reſpecting them.

GOVERNMENT.] By an ordinance of congreſs, paſſed the 13th of July, 1787, this country, for the purpoſes of temporary government, was erected into one diſtrict, ſubject, however, to a diviſion, when circumſtances ſhall make it expedient.

In the ſame ordinance it is provided, that congreſs ſhall appoint a governor, whoſe commiſſion ſhall continue in force three years, unleſs ſooner revoked.

The governor muſt reſide in the diſtrict, and have a freehold eſtate therein of 1000 acres of land, while in the exerciſe of his office.

Congreſs, from time to time, are to appoint a ſecretary, to continue in office four years, unleſs ſooner removed, who muſt reſide in the diſtrict and have an eſtate of 500 acres of land while in office.

The ſame ordinance of congreſs provides that there ſhall be formed in this territory not leſs than three nor more than five ſtates; and when any of the ſaid ſtates ſhall have 60,000 free inhabitants therein, ſuch ſtate ſhall be admitted by its delegates into the congreſs of the United States, on an equal footing with the original ſtates, and ſhall be at liberty to form a permanent conſtitution and ſtate-government, provided

Plate XXVI.

# WEST INDIES from the best AUTHORITIES.

Explanation.
E. English
F. French
S. Spanish
Du: Dutch
Da: Danish

LOUISIANA
WEST FLORIDA
NEW MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
FLORIDA
GULF OF FLORIDA
BAHAMA OR LUCAYOS ISLANDS
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CUBA
SEA OF BAHAMA
BAY OF CAMPEACHE
MEXICO
HONDURAS
BAY OF HONDURAS
CARIBBEAN SEA
HISPANIOLA OR S. DOMINGO
The Western part belongs to the French, the Eastern to the Spaniards
PORTO RICO
THE VIRGIN ISLANDS
LEEWARD ISLANDS
WINDWARD ISLANDS
CARIBBEE ISLES
SPANISH MAIN
TERRA FIRMA
SOUTH AMERICA
PACIFIC OCEAN
COSTA RICA
VERAGUA
BAY OF PANAMA
CARACAS
CUMANA
PARIA
GUAYANA
GUARANOS
VENEZUELA
MARTHA
THE FLORIDA STREAM
OLD BAHAMA CHANNEL
PASSAGE
Bay of Apalachee
Mouth of the Missisippi
Bay of Spiritu Santo
Rock Point
Charlotte Haven
Carlos Bay
Punta Larga
The Promontory
Bay St. Bernard
Rio Bravo
Comarpo
Samander
Tampico
Rio Panuco
Tamiapa
Tuspa
Vera Cruz
Tlalcala
Guaxaca
Teguantepec
Chiapa
Ciudad Real
Stone Bank
Merida
Valladolid
False Cape
Campeachy
Sisal
Bay of Honda
Havanah
C. St. Antonio
C. Corrientes
Cape Cruz
Bay of Cadiz
Trinidad
Cape St. Anthony
Isle of Pines
Cape Francois
Port Paix
Gonave
Petit Goave
Leogane
Port au Prince
St. Domingo
Old C. Francois
Samana I.
C. del Engano
Mona I.
Aguada
Porto Rico
Virgin Gorda
St. Croix
St. Eustatia
St. Christophers
Antigua
Montserrat
Guadaloupe
Grand Terre
Marie Galante
Dominica
Martinico
Fort Royal
St. Lucia
Barbadoes
St. Vincent
Bonaire
Curacao
Buen aire
Orchilla
Blanco
Port Royal
Granada
Tobago
Margarita
Gulf of Venezuela
Maracaybo
Carthagena
Isle Baru
Gulf of Morosquillo
Porto Bello
Chagre
Gulf of Darien
Puercos
Samba
Merida
Lake Zeca
Lake Maracaybo
Lake Caracas
Orinoco
Trinidad
Gulf of Paria
Cape Nicholas
Cape St. Antonio
Cape Corrientes
Cape Romain
Cape Florida
Cape Sable
Cape Antonio
Cape Catoche
Cape Condecedo
Cape Gracios a Dios
Cape Honduras
Cape Blanco
Cape Romedios
Cape St. Lucas
Cape Corrientes
Cape Blanco
Cape Conquibacoa
Cape de la Vela
Cape Codera
Cape Three Points
Cape St. Augustin
Cape St. Roque
Cape Orange
Cape Nord
Cape Tiburon
Cape Negro
Cape Maize
Cape Passage
Cape Tres Puntas
Cape Blanco
Cape Lopez
Cape Negro
Cape St. Mary
Cape Corrientes

the conſtitution and government ſo to be formed ſhall be republican, and ſo far as it can be conſiſtent with the general intereſt of the confederacy. Such admiſſion ſhall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a leſs number of inhabitants in the ſtate than 60,000.

The ſettlement of this country has been checked for ſeveral years paſt by the unhappy Indian war. Of this, however, an amicable termination took place on the 3d of Auguſt, 1795, when a treaty was concluded, ſince which a trade has been opened, by a law of congreſs, with the Indians, on ſuch a liberal footing as promiſes to give permanency to the treaty, and ſecurity to the frontier inhabitants.

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# WEST INDIES.

WE have already obſerved, that between the two continents of America lie a multitude of iſlands which we call the Weſt Indies, and which, ſuch as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and ſeaſons of theſe iſlands differ widely from what we can form any idea of by what we perceive at home, we ſhall, to avoid repetions, ſpeak of them in general, and mention ſome other particulars that are peculiar to the Weſt Indies.

The climate in all our Weſt-India iſlands is nearly the ſame, allowing for thoſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the ſun goes quite over their heads, paſſing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about thirty degrees to the ſouth, they are continually ſubjected to the extreme of a heat which would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to attend to their concerns, even under the meridian ſun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

In the ſame manner, when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, as ſhield the earth from his direct beams; and diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt Indies (and we may add in the Eaſt Indies) are by no means ſo moderate as with us. Our heavieſt rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers riſe in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time all the low country is under water *. Hence it is, the rivers which have their ſource within the tropics ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon; but ſo miſtaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and ſcorched up with a continued and ſer-

* See Wafer's Journey acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien.

vent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable; when, in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniences of the climate in ſeveral places.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſts, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy.—Whether it be owing to this moiſture, which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to a greater quantity of ſulphureous acid which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes, ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time; and this cauſe, perhaps as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to a European conſtitution.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon (principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September) that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes, the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject (as well as the people in the Eaſt Indies) from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and often juſt at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of the reach of fortune. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance which the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee, as the prelude to the enſuing havoc, whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country; the ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their wind-mills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour riſes five feet, ruſhes in upon them with irreſiſtible violence.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt Indies is ſugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the firſt knowledge of it; but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not agreed whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Braſil, by the Portugueſe, from India and the coaſt of Africa; but, however that may be, in the beginning they made the moſt as they ſtill do the beſt ſugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the ſugar-cane is the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt cloying ſweet in nature, and, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome. From the melaſſes, rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of ſugar a meaner ſpirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is conſumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery of Newfoundland, and other parts, beſides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of melaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be diſtilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for the cattle; and the refuſe of the cane,

after grinding, ſerves for fire; ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

It is computed that, when things are well managed, the rum and melaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have ſeen, and by others which we may eaſily imagine, the expenſes of a plantation in the Weſt Indies are very great, and the profits, at the firſt view, precarious: for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling-houſes, and the buying and ſubſiſting a ſuitable number of ſlaves and cattle, will not ſuffer any man to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt 5000l. There are, however, no parts of the world in which great eſtates are made in ſo ſhort a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the Weſt Indies. The produce of a few good ſeaſons generally provides againſt the ill effects of the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overſeer, who has commonly a ſalary of 150l. a year, with overſeers under him in proportion to the greatneſs of the plantation; one to about thirty negroes, with a ſalary of about 40l. Such plantations, too, have a ſurgeon at a fixed ſalary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the courſe which is the leaſt troubleſome to the owner of the eſtate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the ſtock of cattle and ſlaves, to a tenant, who gives ſecurity for the payment of rent, and the keeping up repairs and ſtock. The eſtate is generally eſtimated to ſuch a tenant at half the net produce of the beſt years. Such tenants, if induſtrious and frugal men, ſoon make good eſtates for themſelves.

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork, a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10l. or 12l. annually. The price of men negroes, upon their firſt arrival, is from 30 to 36l. women and grown boys 50s. leſs: but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands generally bring above 40l. upon an average one with another; and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man, expert in buſineſs, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

To particulariſe the commodities proper for the Weſt-India market, would be to enumerate all the neceſſaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, ſpices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they ſell; but from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or leſs as a venture, the Weſt-India market is frequently overſtocked; money muſt be raiſed, and goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt or under. But thoſe who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftſmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers,

get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the Weſt Indies, that phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant in accumulating riches.

The preſent ſtate of the population in the Britiſh Weſt Indies appears to be about 65,000 whites, and 455,000 blacks. There is likewiſe in each of the iſlands a conſiderable number of mixed blood, and native blacks of free condition. In Jamaica they are reckoned at 10,000; and they do not fall ſhort of the ſame number in all other iſlands collectively taken. The whole inhabitants, therefore, may properly be divided into four great claſſes: 1. European whites; 2. Creole or native whites; 3. Creoles of mixed blood and free native blacks; 4. Negroes in a ſtate of ſlavery.

The iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main Continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; though this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into Windward and Leeward Iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Portobello.—The geographical tables and maps diſtinguiſh them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] This iſland, which is the firſt belonging to Great Britain, and alſo the moſt important that we arrive at after leaving Florida, lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the eaſt and weſt it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing leſs towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles ſouth-weſt of England.

This iſland is interſected with a ridge of ſteep rocks, heaped by the frequent earthquakes in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. Theſe rocks, though containing no ſoil on their ſurface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flouriſhing in a perpetual ſpring; they are nouriſhed by the rains which often fall, or the miſts which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their root penetrating the crannies of the rocks, induſtriouſly ſeek out for their own ſupport. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome waters, which tumble down in cataracts, and, together with the ſtupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a moſt delightful landſcape. On each ſide of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminiſh as they remove from it. On theſe coffee grows in great plenty. The valleys or plains between thoſe ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in moſt other countries, and the ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about thirteen hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven; but the moſt uſual diviſions of the ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies are into the dry and wet ſeaſons. The air of this iſland is, in moſt places, exceſſively hot, and unfavourable to European conſtitutions; but the cool ſea-breezes, which ſet in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almoſt every night, but without much thunder, which, when it happens, is very terrible, and roars with aſtoniſhing loudneſs; and the lightning in theſe violent ſtorms frequently does great damage. In February or March they expect earthquakes, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue ſome-

times for a fortnight together. In the plains are found ſeveral ſalt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spaniſh Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the moſt terrible endemial diſtempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greateſt and moſt valuable production of this iſland. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to a great extent. It produces alſo ginger, and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon-tree, whoſe bark is ſo uſeful in medicine; the manchineel, whoſe fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worſt poiſons in nature; the mahogany, in ſuch uſe with our cabinet-makers, and of the moſt valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large ſize and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardneſs of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much eſteemed by the ſavages, both in food and medicine; the ſoap-tree, whoſe berries anſwer all purpoſes of waſhing; the mangrove and olive-bark, uſeful to tanners; the fuſtic and red-wood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton tree is ſtill ſo. No ſort of European grain grows here; they have only maize or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them reſembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits, as has been already obſerved, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and ſweet lemons, limes, ſhadocks, pomegranates, mamees, ſourſops, papas, pine-apples, cuſtard apples, ſtar-apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and ſeveral kinds of berries, alſo garden-ſtuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this iſland are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their fleſh is exceedingly ſweet and delicate. Their horſes are ſmall, mettleſome, and hardy, and, when well made, generally ſell for 30l. or 40l. ſterling. Jamaica likewiſe ſupplies the apothecary with guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, china, caſſia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and ſea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parroquets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks, and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fiſh. The mountains breed numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana and the gallewaſp; but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous or membranous parts of the fleſh of the negroes; and the white people are ſometimes plagued with them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or point of a penknife, taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the very bone.

This iſland was originally a part of the Spaniſh empire in America. Several deſcents had been made upon it by the Engliſh, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion.—Cromwell had fitted out a ſquadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, but there this ſquadron was

unſucceſsful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a deſcent on Jamaica, and, having carried the capital, St. Jago, ſoon compelled the whole iſland to ſurrender. Ever ſince it has been ſubject to the Engliſh, and the government of it is one of the richeſt places, next to that of Ireland, in the diſpoſal of the crown, the ſtanding ſalary being 2,500l. per annum, and the aſſembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquiſites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

We have already obſerved, that the government of all the American iſlands is the ſame, namely, that kind which we have formerly deſcribed under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is univerſally of the church of England; though they have no biſhop, the biſhop of London's commiſſary being the chief religious magiſtrate in thoſe parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and that of the negroes to 120,000. At preſent the inhabitants are ſtated at 30,000 whites, 10,000 freed negroes and people of colour, and 250,000 negro ſlaves.

Indigo was once very much cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the iſland to ſo great a degree, that in the pariſh of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are ſaid to have had no leſs than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number perhaps even the whole iſland exceeds not at this day; and there is great reaſon to believe, that there were many more perſons of property in Jamaica formerly than there are now, though perhaps they had not thoſe vaſt fortunes which dazzle us in ſuch a manner at preſent. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diſeaſes, which ſwept away vaſt multitudes. The decreaſe of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, ariſes from the difficulties to which their trade is expoſed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain; that as they are of late deprived of the moſt beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spaniſh coaſt; the low value of their produce, which they aſcribe to the great improvements the French make in their ſugar colonies, who are enabled to underſell them by the lowneſs of their duties; and the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch iſlands, where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints, which equally affect the other iſlands, have been heard, and ſome remedies applied; others remain unredreſſed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband, have been the ſubjects of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between Great Britain and the Spaniſh nation.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thouſand ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greateſt eaſe, induced the inhabitants to build their capital on this ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with an inconſiderate bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with an inconſiderate diſſipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its ſize, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an

entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, ſo as to leave, in one quarter, not even the ſmalleſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people. The water guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour, and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, and did not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who ſaved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, ſays, the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, and he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads juſt above ground, and were ſqueezed to death. At Savannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk, with the houſes and people in them; the place appearing for ſome time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houſes were ſeen. In ſome parts mountains were ſplit; and at one place a plantation was removed to the diſtance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a ſecond time, ten years after, deſtroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record. Such repeated calamities ſeemed to mark out this place as a devoted ſpot; the inhabitants, therefore, reſolved to forſake it for ever, and to reſide at the oppoſite bay, where they built Kingſton, which is lately become the capital of the iſland. It conſiſts of upwards of one thouſand houſes, many of them handſomely built, and, in the taſte of theſe iſlands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one ſtory high, with porticoes, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingſton ſtands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spaniſh town, which, though at preſent inferior to Kingſton, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is ſtill the ſeat of government, and the place where the courts of juſtice are held.

On the 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almoſt overwhelmed the little ſea port town of Savanna-la-Mar, in Jamaica, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houſes were left ſtanding, and a great number of lives were loſt. Much damage was alſo done, and many perſons periſhed, in other parts of the iſland.

The number of white inhabitants in this iſland in 1787 was 30,000; freed negroes 10,000; maroons 1400; and ſlaves 250,000; in all 304,000. The value of this iſland as Britiſh property is eſtimated as follows; 250,000 negroes, at 50l. ſterling each, twelve millions and a half; the landed and perſonal property, and buildings to which they are appurtenant, twenty-five millions more; the houſes and property in the towns, and the veſſels employed in trade, one million and a half; in all thirty-nine millions. The exports of Jamaica for one year, ending the 5th of January, 1788, amounted in ſterling money to £.2,136,442. 17s 3d. In 1787, the exports to the United States amounted to £.60,095. 18s. and importations from the United States to the value of 90,000l.

The whole produce of the iſland may be reduced to theſe heads: Firſt, ſugars, of which article was exported to Great Britain in 1787, 824,706 cwt. In 1790, 1,185,519 cwt. Moſt of this goes to London, Briſtol, and Glaſgow, and ſome part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheeſe, corn, peas, ſtaves, planks, pitch, and tar,

which they have from hence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thouſand puncheons. The rum of this iſland is generally eſteemed the beſt, and is the moſt uſed in Great Britain. Third, melaſſes, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vaſt diſtilleries. All theſe are the produce of the grand ſtaple, the ſugar-cane. According to the late teſtimony of a reſpectable planter in Jamaica, that iſland has 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of ſugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they ſend out two thouſand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconſiderable; but ſome cocoa and coffee are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweetmeats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood; and both in the former, and latter, they carry on a vaſt and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spaniſh main goes on, which it will be impoſſible for Spain to ſtop, whilſt it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and whilſt the Spaniſh officers, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhow ſo great a reſpect to preſents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilſt they appear to live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in moſt other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes, in a manner inſtantly. Their equipages, their clothes, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion imaginable. This obliges all the treaſure they receive to make but a very ſhort ſtay, being hardly more than ſufficient to anſwer the calls of their neceſſity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The negroes, except thoſe who attend gentlemen, who have them dreſſed in their own livery, have once a year Oſnaburghs, and a blanket for cloathing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown, careleſsly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their deſhabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dreſs.

The common drink of perſons in affluent circumſtances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for a ſhilling per bottle. But the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-devil, becauſe, being frequently drank to exceſs, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which in a few hours ſend them to the grave, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland; which is the reaſon that ſo many die here upon their firſt arrival.

Engliſh money is ſeldom ſeen here, the current coin being entirely Spaniſh. There is no place where ſilver is ſo plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for leſs than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets, beef, pork, fowl, and fiſh, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton ſells at nine-pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are indeed ſome gentlemen

well verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous diſſipation.

The miſery and hardſhips of the natives are truly pitiable; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill-treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that, inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported to the Weſt Indies, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die with the hardſhips they undergo. It is ſaid, that they are ſtubborn and untractable for the moſt part, and that they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not to be cruſhed with it, or to be thought a ſort of beaſts, without ſouls, as ſome of their maſters or overſeers do at preſent, though ſome of theſe tyrants are themſelves the dregs of this nation, and the refuſe of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their ſituations eaſy and comfortable; and it has been obſerved, that in North America, where in general theſe poor wretches are better uſed, there is a leſs waſte of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it ſeems clear, from the whole courſe of hiſtory, that thoſe nations which have behaved with the greateſt humanity to their ſlaves were always beſt ſerved, and ran the leaſt hazard from their rebellions.—The ſlaves, on their firſt arrival from the coaſt of Guinea, are expoſed naked to ſale; they are then generally very ſimple and innocent creatures, but they ſoon become roguiſh enough; and, when they come to be whipped, excuſe their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe, to many of them, be quite intolerable.—They look on death as a bleſſing, and it is ſurpriſing to ſee with what courage and intrepidity ſome of them meet it; they are quite tranſported to think their ſlavery is near at an end, that they ſhall reviſit their native ſhore, and ſee their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow-ſlaves kiſs him, and with him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This iſland, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbees, is ſituated in fifty-nine degrees weſt long. and thirteen degrees north lat. It is twenty-one miles in length, and in breadth fourteen. When the Engliſh, ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found it the moſt ſavage and deſtitute place they had hitherto viſited. It had not the leaſt appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſts of paſture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for ſupporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was ſo good, and the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes in England reſolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were ſo large, and of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. By unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable ſupport; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with the diſputes between the king and parliament, which were beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport

themſelves into this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650 it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negroes and Indian ſlaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery: a practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable to us ever ſince. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented: and in 1676, it was ſuppoſed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another, of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports, in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000l. and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of fifty years. But ſince that time this iſland has been much on the decline; which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. In 1786, the numbers were 16,167 whites; 838 free people of colour; and 62,115 negroes. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. The capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October 1780, a dreadful hurricane occaſioned vaſt devaſtation in Barbadoes, great numbers of dwellings were deſtroyed, not one houſe in the iſland was wholly free from damage, many perſons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and many more were driven into the ſea, and there periſhed.

ST. CHRISTOPHER's.] This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors St. Kitt's, is ſituated in ſixty-three degrees weſt long. and ſeventeen degrees north lat. about fourteen leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention: and in 1626, it was ſettled by the French and Engliſh conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much ſugar as Barbadoes, and ſometimes quite as much. It is computed that this iſland contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in ſixty-one degrees weſt long. and 17 deg. north lat. is of a circular form, near twenty miles over every way. This iſland, which was formerly thought uſeleſs, has now got the ſtart of the reſt of the Engliſh harbours, being the beſt and ſafeſt as a dock-yard and an eſtabliſhment for the royal navy; but St. John's is the port of greateſt trade: and this capital, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary ſeat of the governor of the Leeward Iſlands. In 1774, the white inhabitants in Antigua of all ages and ſexes were 2,590, and the enſlaved negroes 37,808.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two ſmall iſlands, lying between St. Chriſtopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding eighteen miles in circumference. In the former of theſe iſlands the preſent number of whites is ſtated not to exceed ſix hundred, while the negroes amount to about ten thouſand; a diſproportion which neceſſarily converts all ſuch white men as are not exempted by age and decrepitude into a well-regulated militia, among which there is a troop conſiſting of fifty horſe, well mounted and accoutred. Engliſh forces, on the Britiſh eſtabliſhment, they have none. The inhabitants of Montſerrat amount to 1,300 whites, and about 10,000 negroes. The ſoil in theſe iſlands is pretty much alike, light and ſandy, but, notwithſtanding, fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the ſugar-cane. Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but reſtored at the peace.

BARBUDA.] Situated in eighteen degrees north lat. and ſixty-two weſt long. thirty-five miles north of Antigua, is twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent road for ſhipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in huſbandry, and raiſing freſh proviſions for the uſe of the neighbouring iſles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in nineteen deg. north lat. ſixty miles north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is about thirty miles long and ten broad. This iſland is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica.—The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themſelves to huſbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in ſixteen deg. north lat. and in ſixty-two weſt. long. lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is near twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth: it got its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt Indies, and the iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always oppoſed our ſettling here, becauſe it muſt cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadaloupe. However, by the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in expreſs terms to the Engliſh; but we have derived little advantage from this conqueſt, the iſland being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who, being expelled their own ſettlements, have taken refuge here. But on account of its ſituation between the principal French iſlands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the moſt capacious in the Weſt Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itſelf, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late peace.

ST. VINCENT.] Situated in thirteen deg. north lat. and 61 deg. weſt long. fifty miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, thirty miles ſouth of St. Lucia, is about twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the moſt proper for the raiſing of ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is leſs cultivated than formerly throughout the Weſt Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are alſo fugitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands. The Caribbeans were treated with ſo much injuſtice and barbarity, after this iſland came into poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to whom it was ceded by the peace

in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get poſſeſſion of it again in 1779; but it was reſtored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is ſituated in twelve deg. north lat. and ſixty-two deg. weſt long. about thirty leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. Experience has proved, that the ſoil is extremely proper for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertiliſe it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which may be fortified with great advantage; which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and it is not ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a ſandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour or careening place, one hundred large veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which theſe handful of Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the laſt war but one, when Granada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the ſmall iſlands on the north, called the Granadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. But in July, 1779, the French made themſelves maſters of this iſland, though it was reſtored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Excluſive of the Weſt-Indian ſugar iſlands, lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims ſeveral others, that are ſeated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other in this quarter of the globe, of which we ſhall ſpeak, according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is ſituated to the eaſt of the Gulf of St. Laurence, between forty-ſix and fifty-two deg. north lat. and between fifty-three and fifty-nine deg. weſt long.—ſeparated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the Straits of Belleiſle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Laurence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland, which is rocky and barren, we are far from reaping any ſudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the ſea-coaſt perhaps is no very remote proſpect), it is ſaid, will afford a large ſupply of maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt-India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod, carried on upon thoſe ſhoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ 3000 ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery: on board of which, and on ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 10,000 hands; ſo that

this fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery for the royal navy. This fiſhery is computed to increaſe the national ſtock 300,000l. a year in gold and ſilver, remitted to us for the cod we ſell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod both on the Great Bank and the leſſer ones, which lie on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh, are caught there in abundance, all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the Iſle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts, from which we may obſerve, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or ſo barren as not to produce any thing from their ſoil, their coaſts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that ariſing from the moſt fertile ſoil.

This iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern ſhores of the iſland; and, by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the Gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach within three leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to England. The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of Newfoundland, were alſo ceded to the French, who ſtipulated to erect no fortifications on theſe iſlands, nor to keep more than fifty ſoldiers to enforce the police. By the laſt treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fiſheries on the north and weſt coaſt of the iſland. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John; but not above 1000 families remain here in the winter.

CAPE BRETON.] This iſland, or rather collection of iſlands, called by the French *Les Iſles de Madame*, which lie ſo contiguous that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the iſland of Cape Breton, lies between forty-five and forty-ſeven deg. north lat. and between fifty-nine and ſixty deg. weſt long. from London. It is about one hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth; and is ſeparated from Nova Scotia by a narrow ſtrait, called the *Gut of Canſo*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Laurence. The ſoil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louiſbourg, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where ſix or ſeven fathoms water.

The French began a ſettlement in this iſland in 1714, which they continued to increaſe, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, diſpoſſeſſed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little aſſiſtance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ceded to the French, who ſpared no expenſe to fortify and ſtrengthen it. Notwithſtanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the Britiſh troops, under general Amherſt and admiral Boſcawen, together with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and ſtores: and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, ſince which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louiſbourg diſmantled.

ST. JOHN's.] Situated in the Gulf of St. Laurence, is about ſixty miles in length, and thirty or forty broad, and has many fine rivers; and though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the

advantage of both in pleaſantneſs and fertility of ſoil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to four thouſand, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms; and, to the diſgrace of the French governor there were found in his houſe ſeveral Engliſh ſcalps, which were brought there to market by the ſavages; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This iſland was ſo well improved by the French, that it was ſtyled the granary of Canada, which is furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It has ſeveral fine rivers, and a rich ſoil. Charlotte-town is its capital, and is the reſidence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer in the iſland. The inhabitants are eſtimated at about five thouſand.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS. Theſe receive their firſt name from their being diſcovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Iſlands, from Sir George Summers, who was ſhipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his paſſage to Virginia. They are ſituated at a vaſt diſtance from any continent, in thirty-two deg. north lat. and in ſixty-five degrees weſt long. Their diſtance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but ſmall, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of acceſs, being as Waller the poet, who reſided ſome time there, expreſſes it, "walled with rocks." The air of theſe iſlands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always eſteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richneſs of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the ſoil of theſe iſlands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only buſineſs of the inhabitants, who conſiſt of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light ſloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the Weſt Indies. Theſe veſſels are as remarkable for their ſwiftneſs, as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is ſeated at the bottom of a haven in the iſland of the ſame name, and is defended with ſeven or eight forts, and ſeventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houſes, a handſome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS. The Bahamas are ſituated to the ſouth of Carolina, between twelve and twenty ſeven degrees north lat. and ſeventy-three and eighty-one degrees weſt long. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to the Iſle of Cuba; and are ſaid to be 500 in number, ſome of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the ſoil of Carolina; they are, however, almoſt uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of the Floridas; though ſome others are larger and more fertile, on which the Engliſh have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the Gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galleons ſail in their paſſage to Europe. Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries; but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his paſſage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a ſecond time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The Engliſh, obſerving the advantageous ſituation of theſe iſlands for a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to ſettle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this ſettlement from being of any advantage, and the Iſle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the American na-

vigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out captain Woodes Rogers, with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and for making a ſettlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this laſt ſettlement, theſe iſlands have been improving, though they advance but ſlowly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. The Spaniards captured theſe iſlands during the laſt war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Auguſtine, April 7, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and Weſt-Indian iſlands, we ſhall now proceed along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of America, as far as the fifty-ſecond degree of ſouth latitude, where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland Iſlands ſituated near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South America. Falkland Iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name, Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1689, and, being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps. They have occaſioned ſome conteſt between Spain and Great Britain; but being of very little worth, ſeem to have been ſilently abandoned by the latter in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spaniſh court.

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# SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

## EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 500<br>Breadth 440 | between | 80 and 91 Weſt longitude<br>25 and 32 North latitude | 100,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain to Spain by the late treaty of peace, is bounded by Georgia on the North; by the Miſſiſſippi on the Weſt; by the Gulf of Mexico on the South; and by the Bahama Straits on the Eaſt.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Miſſiſſippi, which is one of the fineſt in the world, as well as the largeſt; for, including its turnings and windings, it is ſuppoſed to run a courſe of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with ſands and ſhoals, which deny acceſs to veſſels of any conſiderable burthen; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pittman ſays, ſeventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almoſt to its ſource. The Mobille, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are alſo large and noble ſtreams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are St. Bernard's, Aſcenſion, Mobille, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Santo, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninſula.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Very various accounts have been given of theſe particulars in this country; but that the air of Florida is pure and wholeſome, appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who, in theſe reſpects, far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours, the Mexicans,

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Eaſt Florida, near the ſea, and forty miles back, is flat and ſandy. But even the country round St. Auguſtine, in all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a-year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a large ſize, and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. The inland country, towards the hills, is extremely rich and fertile, producing ſpontaneouſly the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewiſe favourable to the rearing of European productions.

This country alſo produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, and iron-ore: pearls are alſo found on the coaſt of Florida: mahogany grows on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, but inferior in ſize and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here ſo numerous, that you may purchaſe a good ſaddle horſe in exchange for goods of five ſhillings value prime coſt; and there are inſtances of horſes being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The chief town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola, N. lat. 30-22, W. long 87-20, which is ſituated within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the Gulf of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind, being ſurrounded by land on every ſide.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, N. lat. 29-45, W. long. 11-12, runs along the ſhore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and incloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is furniſhed with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

# NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 2000 / Breadth 1400 | between | 94 and 126 West longitude. / 23 and 43 North latitude. | 100,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louisiana on the East; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean, on the South; and by the same Ocean on the West.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| North-east division | New Mexico Proper | SANTA FE, W. lon. 104, N. lat. 36. |
| South-east division | Apacheira - - | St. Antonio |
| South division | Sonora - - - | Tuape |
| Western division | California, a peninsula, | St. Juan |

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] These countries, lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, the heat is great in summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural history of these countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of them, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold-mines in these countries, nothing positive can be asserted. Their natural productions are undoubtedly insufficient to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular production; in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm, and clear as chrystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, AND COMMERCE.] The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak: though they are increasing every day, in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilised life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico: our famous navigator, Sir Francis Drake, took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situated for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

# OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 2000<br>Breadth 600 | between | 83 and 110 W. long.<br>8 and 30 N. lat. | 318,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the North; by the Gulf of Mexico, on the North-eaſt; by Terra Firma, on the South-eaſt; by the Pacific Ocean, on the South-weſt; containing three audiences, viz.

| Audiences. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| 1. Galicia, or Guadalajarra - | Guadalajarra |
| 2. Mexico Proper - - - | Mexico, W. long. 100. N. lat. 19-54.<br>Acapulco<br>Vera Cruz |
| 3. Guatimala - - - | Guatimala *. |

BAYS.] On the North Sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, are the bays of Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

CAPES.] Theſe are the Cape Sardo, Cape St. Martin, Cape Conducedo, Cape Catoche, Cape Honduras, Cape Cameron, and Cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, Cape Spirito Santo, Cape Corientes, Cape Gallero, Cape Blanco, Cape Burica, Cape Prucreos, and Cape Mala, in the South Sea.

WINDS.] In the Gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent ſeas, there are ſtrong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a diſtance from land within the tropics. Near the coaſt, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. monſoons, and ſea and land breezes, as in Aſia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico, lying for the moſt part within the torrid zone, is exceſſively hot; and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons, it is likewiſe extremely unwholeſome. The inland country, however, aſſumes a better aſpect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the weſtern ſide the land is not ſo low as on the eaſtern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The ſoil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuſe any ſort of grain, were the induſtry of the inhabitants to correſpond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greateſt plenty and perfection. Mexico produces alſo a prodigious quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the Gulf of Mexico, and the provinces of Guaxaca and Guatimala; ſo that here are more ſugar-mills than in any other

* This city was ſwallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, when eight thouſand families inſtantly periſhed. New Guatimala is built at ſome diſtance, and is well inhabited.

part of Spaniſh America. Cedar-trees and logwood abound about the bays of Campeachy and Honduras; the maho-tree alſo, which has a bark with ſuch ſtrong fibres that they twiſt and make ropes of. They have alſo a tree, which is called light-wood, being as light as a cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandiſe on the ſea-coaſts. But what is conſidered as the chief glory of this country, and what firſt induced the Spaniards to form ſettlements upon it, are the mines of gold and ſilver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, but in none ſo much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the moſt barren and mountainous parts of the country: nature making amends in one reſpect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and ſilver mines depends on the ſame principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of ſeveral heterogeneous ſubſtances mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into ſmall pieces by a mill, and afterwards waſhed, by which means it is diſengaged from the earth, and other ſoft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all ſubſtances, has the ſtrongeſt attraction for gold, and likewiſe a ſtronger attraction for ſilver than the other ſubſtances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and ſilver are firſt ſeparated from the heterogeneous matter, and then, by ſtraining and evaporation, they are diſunited from the mercury itſelf. It has been computed that the revenues of Mexico amount to twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spaniſh America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver. The other articles next in importance to gold and ſilver are the cochineal and cocoa. The former is of the animal kind, and of the ſpecies of the gall inſects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and ſucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimſon colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which conſiſts in dyeing all ſorts of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon, and purple. It is alſo uſed in medicine as a ſudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no leſs than nine hundred thouſand pounds' weight of this commodity to anſwer the purpoſes of medicine and dyeing. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, grows on a tree of a middling ſize, which bears a pod about the ſize and ſhape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spaniſh commerce in this article is immenſe; and ſuch is the general conſumption, as well as the external call for it, that a ſmall garden of cocoa-trees is ſaid to produce to the owner twenty thouſand crowns a-year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutritious, and ſuitable to the climate. This country likewiſe produces ſilks, but not in ſuch quantity as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and, on account of its lightneſs, is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT, AND MANNERS. We have already deſcribed the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conqueſt of that country by the Spaniards. The preſent inhabitants may be divided into whites, Indians, and negroes. The whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are Creoles, i. e. natives of Spaniſh America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the ſame character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a ſtill greater portion of pride, for they conſider themſelves as entitled to very high diſtinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other

inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The Creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are deſcended, without that courage, firmneſs, and patience, which conſtitute the praiſeworthy part of the Spaniſh character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greateſt part of their lives to loitering and inactive pleaſures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and ſpacious inſignificance. From idleneſs and conſtitution their whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue; and their ladies, of conſequence, are not at all diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity and domeſtic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithſtanding the devaſtations of the firſt invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppreſſion and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miſerable race of mortals. The blacks here, like thoſe in other parts of the world, are ſtubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the groſs ſlavery they endure as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greateſt part of Spaniſh America. The civil government is adminiſtered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a reſemblance to the old parliaments in France. In theſe courts the viceroy of the king of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power which his catholic majeſty has in his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The greatneſs of the viceroy's office is diminiſhed by the ſhortneſs of its duration. For as jealouſy is the leading feature of Spaniſh politics in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to retain his power for more than three years; which, no doubt, may have a good effect in ſecuring the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy conſequences to the miſerable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed that prieſts, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spaniſh America. The people are ſuperſtitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with ſuch materials to work upon, it is not remarkable that the church ſhould enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING ] The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the Gulf of Mexico; with the Eaſt Indies, by Acapulco on the South Sea, and with South America by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world, and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themſelves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ſhips, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo conſiſts of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little more than wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, are almoſt the only advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera

Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, in the Iſle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet, which carries on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected, and provided with a convoy neceſſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the ſea-port by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America and the Eaſt Indies. About the month of December the great galleon, attended by a large ſhip as a convoy, annually arrives here. The cargoes of theſe ſhips (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewiſe carries goods) conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the Eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is not computed to bring leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver, and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the galleon's cargoes. Several other ſhips, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, laſts thirty days. The galleon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European goods as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial ſtates, to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the flota, ſo the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the ſame indolence which ruined their European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be conſidered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negotiated. The Eaſt-India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all paſs through this city. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined; here the king's fifth is depoſited; and here are wrought all the utenſils and ornaments in plate which are every year ſent to Europe. The city itſelf breathe the air of the higheſt magnificence, and, according to the beſt accounts, contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

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## SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA, TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1400 | between | 60 and 82 Weſt long. | 700,000 |
| Breadth | 700 | | the Equator, and 12 N. lat. | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic Ocean) on the North; by the ſame ſea and Surinam on the Eaſt; by the country of the Amazons and Peru on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain on the Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The northern diviſion contains the provinces of .... | 1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien | Porto Bello<br>PANAMA, W. long. 80. 21. N. lat. 8-47. |
| | 2. Carthagena | Carthagena |
| | 3. St. Martha | St. Martha |
| | 4. Rio de la Hacha | Rio de la Hacha |
| | 5. Venezuela | Venezuela |
| | 6. Comana | Comana |
| | 7. New Andaluſia, or Paria | St. Thomas |
| The ſouthern diviſion contains the provinces of .... | 1. New Granada | Santa Fé de Bagota |
| | 2. Popayan | Popayan |

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Iſthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little weſt of theſe two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America; and here the iſthmus or neck of land is only ſixty miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Oronoque.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the Bay of Panama and the Bay of St. Michael's, in the South Sea; the Bay of Porto Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Sino Bay, Carthagena Bay and harbour, the Gulf of Venezuela, the Bay of Maracaibo, the Gulf of Trieſto, the Bay of Guaira, the Bay of Curiaco, and the Gulf of Paria, or Andaluſia, in the North Sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas Point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart Point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Naſſau; all on the north ſhore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern diviſions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmeſt day in Paris is continual in Carthagena; the exceſſive heats raiſe the vapour of the ſea, which is precipitated in ſuch rains as ſeem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almoſt continually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The ſoil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impoſſible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coaſts are generally barren ſand, and incapable of bearing any ſpecies of grain. The trees moſt remarkable for their dimenſions are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balſam-tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtle poiſon, againſt which common oil is found to be the beſt antidote. The malignity of this tree is ſuch, that if a perſon only ſteps under it, he finds his body ſwelled, and is racked with the ſevereſt tortures. The beaſts, from inſtinct, always avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the

fruit of a ſpecies of willow, and contains a kernel reſembling an almond, but leſs white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous vipers and ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great meaſure exhauſted. The ſilver, iron, and copper mines, have been ſince opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the ſouthern parts. Among thoſe peculiar to this country, the moſt remarkable is the Sloth, or, as it is called by way of deriſion, the Swift Peter. It bears a reſemblance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape and ſize, but is of a moſt wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its ſkin all over corrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtirring unleſs compelled by hunger; and he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plaintive, and at the ſame time ſo diſagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and diſguſt. In this cry conſiſts the whole defence of this wretched animal; for on the firſt hoſtile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with diſguſtful howlings, ſo that his purſuer flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noiſe. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he aſcends with a world of uneaſineſs, moving, and crying, and ſtopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another troubleſome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himſelf into a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in theſe countries are very numerous; they keep together twenty or thirty in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree; and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter and make a frightful noiſe, throwing things at him; they hang themſelves by the tail, on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes: but where two or three people are together, they uſually ſcamper away.

NATIVES.] Beſides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general deſcription of the Americans, there is another ſpecies, of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a ſmaller ſtature than the ordinary Indians. Their diſpoſitions too are more ſoft and effeminate; but what principally diſtinguiſhes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the ſun, ſee beſt by moonlight, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from thoſe of Mexico. To what we have obſerved with regard to this country, it is only neceſſary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variouſly intermixed with the negroes and Indians. Theſe intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully diſtinguiſhed from each other, becauſe every perſon expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater ſhare of the Spaniſh blood runs in his veins. The firſt di-

ſtinction, ariſing from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to theſe are the Tercerones, produced from a white and a mulatto. From the intermarriage with theſe and the whites, ariſe the Quarterones, who, though ſtill near the former, are diſgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of theſe and the whites are the Quinterones, who, it is ſaid, are not to be diſtinguiſhed from the real Spaniards, but by being of a ſtill fairer complexion. The ſame gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; beſides theſe, there are a thouſand others, hardly diſtinguiſhable by the natives themſelves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello, which are three of the moſt conſiderable cities in Spaniſh America; and each containing ſeveral thouſand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandiſe of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coaſt, particularly in the Bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. An immenſe number of negro ſlaves are employed in fiſhing for theſe, who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are ſometimes, however, devoured by fiſh, particularly the ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the ſame footing with that of Mexico.

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# PERU.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1800<br>Breadth 500 | between | the equator and 25 S. lat.<br>60 and 81 W. long. | 970,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the North; by the mountains, or Cordeleirias des Andes, Eaſt; by Chili, South; and by the Pacific Ocean, Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The northern diviſion | Quito | Quito<br>Payta |
| The middle diviſion | Lima, or Los Royes | LIMA, 76-49 W. long. 12-11. S. lat.<br>Cuſco, and Callao |
| The ſouthern diviſion | Los Charcos | Potoſi<br>Porco. |

SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Coſma, Vermeio, Guara, Calla the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] The rivers Granada, or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon or Plate, riſe in the Andes. Many other rivers riſe alſo in the Ande

Plate XVII.

# SOUTH AMERICA from the best AUTHORITIES.

CARIBBEAN SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
SOUTH SEA
SOUTHERN OCEAN
TERRA FIRMA
NEW GRENADA
COMANA
GUIANA
PARIA
AMAZONIA
BRASIL
CHILI
PATAGONIA
Equinoctial Line
Tropic of Capricorn
Gallipagos Is.
Caracas
Quito
Lima
Truxillo
Arica
Potosi
Buenos Ayres
St. Jago
Rio Janeiro
Tapayos
Falkland Isles
Georgia
Sandwich Land
Magellan
Cape Horn
Amazon
Orinoco
La Plata
Paraguay
Meridian of London
East Longitude
West Longitude from London

and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. lat. There is ſaid to be a river in Peru whoſe waters are as red as blood; but the truth of this has been doubted.

PETRIFIED WATERS.] There are ſome waters, which, in their courſe, cover whatever they paſs over with ſtone; and here are fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed by ſeamen for the ſame purpoſe.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one ſide the South Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not ſo hot as other tropical countries. The ſky too, which is generally cloudy, defends it from the direct rays of the ſun; but what is extremely ſingular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is ſufficiently ſupplied by a ſoft kindly dew which falls gradually every night on the ground and ſo refreſhes the plants and graſs, as to produce in many places the greateſt fertility. Along the ſea coaſt in Peru is generally a dry barren ſand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS.] There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are conſtantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns ſhift with the mines. That of Potoſi, when the ſilver there was found at the eaſieſt expence (for now having gone ſo deep it is not ſo eaſily brought up), contained 90,000 ſouls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were ſix to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no leſs remarkable for its fineneſs than for the animals on which it grows; theſe are the lamas and vicunnas. The lama has a ſmall head, reſembling that of a horſe and a ſheep at the ſame time. It is about the ſize of a ſtag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it ſpits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The fleſh of the lama is agreeable and ſalutary, and the animal is not only uſeful in affording wool and food, but alſo as a beaſt of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the ſteepeſt mountains with a burden of ſixty or ſeventy pounds. It feeds very ſparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is ſmaller and ſwifter than the lama, and produces wool ſtill finer in quality. In the vicunna is found the bezoar ſtone, regarded as a ſpecific againſt poiſon. The next great article in the produce and commerce of this country is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jeſuits' bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The beſt bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it is about the ſize of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit reſembling the almond: but it is only the bark which has thoſe excellent qualities that render it ſo uſeful in terminating fevers, and other diſorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greateſt abundance in the vale of Africa, a diſtrict in the ſouthern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually, to the value of 100,000 crowns. Peru is likewiſe the only part of Spaniſh America which produces quickſilver, an article of immenſe value, conſidering the various purpoſes to which it is applied, and eſpecially the purification of gold and ſilver. The principal mine of this ſingular metal is

at a place called Guancavelica, diſcovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitiſh maſs, reſembling brick ill burned. The ſubſtance is volatiliſed by fire, and received in ſteam by a combination of glaſs veſſels, where it condenſes by means of a little water at the bottom of each veſſel, and forms a pure heavy liquid. In Peru likewiſe is found the new ſubſtance called *platina*, which may be conſidered as an eighth metal, and, from its ſuperior qualities, might almoſt vie with gold itſelf.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join theſe articles becauſe of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we ſhall deſcribe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and the whole Spaniſh empire: its ſituation, in the middle of a ſpacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro as the moſt proper for a city, which he expected would preſerve his memory. It is ſo well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like thoſe of London, command a ſtream, each of his own uſe. There are many very magnificent ſtructures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houſes in general are built of ſlight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering ſtone houſes unneceſſary; and, beſides, it is found, that theſe are more apt to ſuffer by ſhocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the ſea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a ſixth part. One remarkable fact is ſufficient to demonſtrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, cauſed the ſtreets to be paved with ingots of ſilver, to the amount of ſeventeen millions ſterling. All travellers ſpeak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, which load and ornament even the walls. The merchants of Lima may be ſaid to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the ſouthern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for ſuch articles as the inhabitants of Peru ſtand in need of; the fleet from Europe and the Eaſt Indies land at the ſame harbour, and the commodities of Aſia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate ſale for, the merchants of Lima purchaſe on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouſes, knowing that they muſt ſoon find an outlet for them, ſince by one channel or other they have a communication with almoſt every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the ſituation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not ſufficient to compenſate for one diſaſter, which always threatens, and has ſometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a moſt tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demoliſhed Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any deſtruction more terrible or complete; not more than one of three thouſand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the moſt ſingular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houſes in the utmoſt terror and confuſion; the ſea, as uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for

ever in its boſom, and immediately all was ſilent; but the ſame wave which deſtroyed the town drove a little boat by the place where the man ſtood, into which he threw himſelf, and was ſaved. Cuſco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a diſtance from the ſea, it has been long on the decline; but it is ſtill a very conſiderable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo, both here and in Quito, a particular taſte for painting; and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been admired in Italy, are diſperſed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs, if not ſuperior to it. It is, like Cuſco, an inland city, and, having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conſumption all over the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT. It has been eſtimated by ſome writers, that in all Spaniſh America there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater, though neither in any reſpect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spaniſh dominions. Pride and lazineſs are the two predominant paſſions. It is ſaid, by the moſt authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other deſcendents of the Spaniards, according to the above diſtinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true-born Caſtilian could not think of but with deteſtation. This, no doubt, in part ariſes from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spaniſh pride has made the greateſt deſcents; and many of the firſt nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy reſides, whoſe authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. The viceroy is as abſolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are ſo extenſive, it is neceſſary that he ſhould part with a ſhare of his authority to the ſeveral audiences or courts eſtabliſhed over the kingdom. There is a treaſury court eſtabliſhed at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

# CHILI.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1200 | between | 25 and 45 S. lat. | 206,000 |
| Breadth | 500 | | 65 and 85 W. long. | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru on the North; by La Plata on the East; by Patagonia on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean on the West.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| On the weſt ſide of the Andes, | Chili Proper ..... | St. Jago, W. long. 77. S. lat. 34.<br>Baldivia<br>Imperial |
| On the eaſt ſide of the Andes, | Cuyo, or Cutio ..... | St. John de Frontiera. |

LAKES.] The principal lakes are thoſe of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Beſides which, they have ſeveral ſalt-water lakes, that have a communication with the ſea, part of the year. In ſtormy weather the ſea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fiſh; but in the hot ſeaſon the water congeals, leaving a cruſt of fine white ſalt a foot thick.

SEAS, RIVERS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea that borders upon Chili is the Pacific Ocean on the weſt. The principal rivers are the Salado or Salt River, Guaſco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Bohio, and the Baldivia, all ſcarcely navigable but at their mouths.

The principal bays, or harbours, are Capiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valpariſo, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Caſtro.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Theſe are not remarkably different from the ſame in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with reſpect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all ſpecies of grain, of which a conſiderable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the ſame with thoſe of Peru; and they have gold almoſt in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are ſtill in a greater meaſure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preſervation from the Spaniſh yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are not ſuppoſed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been ſome formidable inſurrections againſt the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spaniſh court.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined

to Peru, Panama, and ſome parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn ſufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raiſed in no other part of the South Seas; hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions; and they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

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# PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1500<br>Breadth 1000 | between | 12 and 37 S. lat.<br>50 and 75 W. long. | 1,000,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia on the North; by Braſil on the Eaſt; by Patagonia on the South; and by Peru and Chili on the Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Eaſt diviſion contains | Paraguay | Aſſumption |
| | Parana | St. Anne |
| | Guaira | Ciudad Real |
| | Uragua | Los Royes |
| South diviſion | Tucuman | St. Jago |
| | Rio de la Plata | BUENOS AYRES, W. long. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35. |

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which ſtands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Caſacoroes, is 100 miles long.

RIVERS.] This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their receſs, leave them enriched with a ſlime that produces the greateſt plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This vaſt tract is far from being wholly ſubdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people in Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above-mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, not interrupted by the leaſt hill for ſeveral hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts are all that is properly bought, the car-

caſes being in a manner given into the bargain. A horſe ſome time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the uſual price for a bullock, choſen out of the herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is deſtitute of woods. The air is remarkably ſweet and ſerene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholeſome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE. The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country, by ſailing up the river La Plata, in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called on account of the excellence of the air, on the ſouth ſide of the river, 50 leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the ſouthward of Braſil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spaniſh America; two, or at moſt three, regiſter ſhips, make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar, and hides. Thoſe who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe, in ſuch parts of Braſil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are ſo much the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be ſaid on thoſe articles.

But we cannot quit this country without ſaying ſomething of that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth which the Jeſuits erected in the interior parts, and of which theſe crafty prieſts endeavoured to keep all ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of the laſt century, thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that their want of ſucceſs in their miſſions was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians, wherever they came. They inſinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America; and that all thoſe countries might be ſubdued to his Catholic majeſty's obedience, without expenſe, and without force. This remonſtrance met with ſucceſs; the ſphere of their labours was marked out, and uncontrouled liberty was given to the Jeſuits within theſe limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, not to ſuffer any Spaniards to enter this pale, without licence from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to ſend a certain number to the king's works whenever they ſhould be demanded, and the miſſions ſhould become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms the Jeſuits gladly entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about fifty wandering families, whom they perſuaded to ſettle: and they united them into a little townſhip. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they built a ſuperſtructure which has amazed the world, and added ſo much power, at the ſame time that it occaſioned ſo much envy and jealouſy of their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and ſuch maſterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the moſt

ſavage nations, fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued thoſe to their government who had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes to embrace their religion; and theſe ſoon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace, with preciſion, all the ſteps which were taken in the accompliſhment of ſo extraordinary a conqueſt over the bodies and minds of ſo many people. The Jeſuits left nothing undone that could confirm their ſubjection, or increaſe their numbers; and it is ſaid, that above 340,000 families, ſeveral years ago, were ſubject to the Jeſuits; living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint: that the Indians were inſtructed in the military art with the moſt exact diſcipline, and could raiſe 60,000 men well armed: that they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exerciſed manufactures; ſome even aſpired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of theſe miſſions, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of theſe Jeſuits with great ſeverity, accuſing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to ſuch an exceſs, as to cauſe not only perſons of both ſexes, but even the magiſtrates, who are always choſen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and to ſuffer perſons of the higheſt diſtinction, within their juriſdiction, to kiſs the hem of their garments, as the greateſt honour. The prieſts themſelves poſſeſſed large property; all manufactures were theirs; the natural produce of the country was brought to them; and the treaſures, annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order, ſeemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming theſe miſſions. The fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of the territory was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacrament, to make the Oragua the boundary of their poſſeſſions, the Jeſuits refuſed to comply with this diviſion, or to ſuffer themſelves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own conſent. And we are informed by authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they were eaſily, and with conſiderable ſlaughter, defeated by the European troops who were ſent to quell them. And, in 1767, the Jeſuits were ſent out of America by royal authority, and their late ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country.

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## SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The iſland of Cuba is ſituated between twenty and twenty-five deg. north lat. and between ſeventy-four and eight-five deg. weſt long. one hundred miles to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and ſeventy-five north of Jamaica, and is near ſeven hundred miles in length, and generally about ſeventy miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through

the middle of the iſland from eaſt to weſt; but the land near the ſea is in general level and flooded in the rainy ſeaſon, when the ſun is vertical. This noble iſland is ſuppoſed to have the beſt ſoil, for ſo large a country, of any in America. It produces all commodities known in the Weſt Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper and other ſpices, caſſia fiſtula, maſtic, and aloes. It alſo produces tobacco and ſugar; but from the want of hands, and the lazineſs of the Spaniards, not in ſuch quantities as might be expected. It is ſaid that its exports do not equal in quantity thoſe of our ſmall iſland of Antigua.

The courſe of the rivers is too ſhort to be of any conſequence; but there are ſeveral good harbours in the iſland which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, ſtrongly ſituated and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great ſtrength and importance, containing about 2000 houſes, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and perſeverance of the Engliſh troops in the year 176 , but reſtored in the ſubſequent treaty of peace. Beſides theſe, there is likewiſe Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a conſiderable town thirty miles eaſt of the Havannah.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between ſixty-four and ſixty-ſeven deg. weſt long and in eighteen deg. north lat. lying between Hiſpaniola and St Chriſtopher's, is one hundred miles long and forty broad. The ſoil is beautifully diverſified with woods, valleys, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers, but the iſland is unhealthful in the rainy ſeaſons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards ſettled here; but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, ſtands in a little iſland on the north-ſide, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief iſland by a cauſeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almoſt inacceſſible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than moſt of the Spaniſh towns, becauſe it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the Engliſh and French with the king of Spain's ſubjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the eaſt-end of Porto Rico, are extremely ſmall.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between fifty-nine and ſixty-two deg. weſt long. and in ten deg. north lat. lies between the Iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh Main, from which it is ſeparated by the Straits of Paria. It is about ninety miles long, and ſixty broad; and is an unhealthful but fruitful ſoil, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and ſome cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the iſland and extorted money from the inhabitants. It was captured by the Britiſh arms in February 1797.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in ſixty-four deg. weſt long. and 11-30 north lat. ſeparated from the northern coaſt of New Andaluſia, in Terra Firma, by a ſtrait of twenty-four miles, is about forty miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a moſt agreeable proſpect. The iſland abounds in paſture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a ſcarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl-fiſhery on its coaſt, which is now diſcontinued.

There are many other ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas, to which the Spa-

niards have paid no attention. We ſhall, therefore, proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the firſt Spaniſh iſland of any importance is CHILOE, on the coaſt of Chili, which has a governor, and ſome harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in eighty-three deg. weſt long. and thirty-three ſouth lat. three hundred miles weſt of Chili. This iſland is uninhabited; but having ſome good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at and water. This iſland is famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. It ſeems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left aſhore in this ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived ſome years, until he was diſcovered by captain Woodes Rogers in 1709. When taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves. He was dreſſed in goats' ſkin, would drink nothing but water, and it was ſome time before he could reliſh the ſhip's victuals. During his abode in this iſland he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught thirty years after by lord Anſon's people; their venerable aſpect, and majeſtic beards, diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of antiquity. Selkirk, upon his return to England, was adviſed to publiſh an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is ſaid to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication; but that writer, by the help of theſe papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; ſo that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigeſted for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but thoſe hints which gave riſe to his own celebrated performance.

The other iſlands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago Iſles, ſituated four hundred miles weſt of Peru, under the equator; and thoſe in the Bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Iſlands.

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# PORTUGUESE AMERICA,

## CONTAINING BRASIL.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 2500 | between | the Equator and 35 South latitude. |
| Breadth 700 | | 35 and 60 Weſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the River Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the North; by the ſame Ocean, on the Eaſt; by the mouth of the River Plata, on the South; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of the Amazons, on the Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Northern diviſion contains the captainſhips of | Para | Para, or Belim |
| | Marignan | St. Lewis |
| | Siara | Siara |
| | Petagues | St. Lue |
| | Rio Grande | Tignares |
| | Payraba | Payraba |
| | Tamara | Tamara |
| | Pernambuco | Olinda |
| Middle diviſion contains the captainſhips of | Serinippe | Serigippe |
| | Bahia, or the bay of All Saints | St. Salvador |
| | Ilheos | Paya |
| | Porto Seguro | Porto Seguro |
| | Spirito Santo | Spirito Santo |
| Southern diviſion contains the captainſhips of | Rio Janeiro | St. Sebaſtian |
| | St. Vincent | St. Vincent |
| | Del Rey | St. Salvador |

On the coaſt are three ſmall iſlands, where ſhips touch for proviſions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES.] The Atlantic Ocean waſhes the coaſt of Braſil on the north-eaſt and eaſt, upwards of 3000 miles, forming ſeveral fine bays and harbours: as the harbours of Pernambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador. on the north ſhore of La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Auguſtine, Cape Trio, and cape St. Mary, the moſt ſoutherly promontory of Braſil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE, AND RIVERS.] The name of Braſil was given to this country, becauſe it was obſerved to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Braſil, which lies almoſt under the equator, the climate is hot, boiſterous, and unwholeſome, ſubject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have ſuch deluges of rain, with ſtorms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the ſouthward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more ſerene and wholeſome air, refreſhed with the ſoft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coaſt is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleaſant, it being interſperſed with meadows and woods; but on the weſt, far within land, are mountains from whence iſſue many noble ſtreams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; others running acroſs the country from eaſt to weſt till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the ſugar-mills belonging to the Portugueſe.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the ſoil is extremely fruitful, producing ſugar, which, being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muſcovado, as we call our unrefined ſugar; alſo tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balſam of Copaiba, Braſil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly uſed in dyeing, but not the red of the beſt kind; it has likewiſe ſome place in medicine, as a ſtomachic and reſtringent.

The animals here are the ſame as in Peru and Mexico. The produce

of the ſoil was found very ſufficient for ſubſiſting the inhabitants until the mines of gold and diamonds were diſcovered: theſe, with the ſugar plantations, occupy ſo many hands, that agriculture lies neglected, and, in conſequence, Braſil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The portrait given us of the manners and cuſtoms of the Portugueſe in America, by the moſt judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are deſcribed as a people, who, while ſunk in the moſt effeminate luxury, practiſe the moſt deſperate crimes; of a temper hypocritical and diſſembling; of little ſincerity in converſation, or honeſty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel; in their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are much more fond of ſhow, ſtate and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free ſociety, and of a good table; yet their feaſts, which are ſeldom made, are ſumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cauſe themſelves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called ſerpentines, which are borne on the negroes' ſhoulders, by the help of a bamboo about twelve or fourteen feet long. Moſt of theſe hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the ſame colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of teſter, with curtains; ſo that the perſon carried cannot be ſeen, unleſs he pleaſes; but may either lie down, or ſit up leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be ſeen he pulls the curtain aſide, and ſalutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the ſtreets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and even hold long conferences in them in the ſtreets; but then the two ſlaves who carry them make uſe of a ſtrong well made ſtaff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they ſtick faſt in the ground, and reſt the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of theſe, till their maſter's buſineſs or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of faſhion, or any lady, will paſs the ſtreets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the ſame excluſive plan on which the ſeveral nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly reſembles the Spaniſh method, in not ſending out ſingle ſhips, as the convenience of the ſeveral places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which ſail at ſtated times from Portugal, and compoſe three flotas, bound to as many ports in Braſil; namely, to Pernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the ſouthern extremity; and to the Bay of All Saints, in the middle.

In this laſt is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and ſometimes the city of Bahia, where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, ſpacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and ſteep rock, having the ſea upon one ſide, and a lake, forming a creſcent, inveſting it almoſt wholly, ſo as nearly to join the ſea, on the other. The ſituation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have beſides added to it very ſtrong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond compariſon, the moſt gay and opulent city in all Braſil.

The trade of Braſil is very great, and increaſes every year; which is the leſs ſurpriſing, as the Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying themſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has ſettlements in America; they being the only European nation that has eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa, whence they import between forty and fifty thouſand negroes annually,

all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Braſil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is ſuppoſed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000l. This, with the ſugar, the tobacco, the hides, and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give ſome idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities that European ſhips carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they conſiſt of woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the linen and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the ſilks of France and Italy; ſilk and thread ſtockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in theſe metals, from England; as well as ſalt-fiſh, beef, flour, and cheeſe; oil they have from Spain; wine, with ſome fruit, is nearly all they are ſupplied with from Portugal. England is at preſent moſt intereſted in the trade of Portugal, both for home conſumption and what they want for the uſe of the Braſils.

Braſil is a very wealthy and flouriſhing ſettlement. Their export of ſugar within forty years is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almoſt the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raiſed in ſuch large quantities as in the United States. The northern and ſouthern parts of Braſil abound with horned cattle: theſe are hunted for their hides only, of which no leſs than twenty thouſand are ſent annually to Europe.

The Portugueſe had been long in poſſeſſion of Braſil before they diſcovered the treaſures of gold and diamonds which have ſince made it ſo conſiderable. Their fleets rendezvous in the Bay of All Saints, to the amount of one hundred ſail of large ſhips, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treaſures of the Spaniſh flota and galleons. The gold aloue, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions ſterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

History and government.] This country was firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſpuccio, in 1498; but the Portugueſe did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themſelves at the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with ſome interruption at firſt from the court of Spain, who conſidered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata; which they ſtill enjoy. The French alſo made ſome attempts to plant colonies on this coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of proſperity, they were ſtruck by one of thoſe blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebaſtian, the king of Portugal, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and by that event the Portugueſe loſt their independence, being abſorbed into the Spaniſh dominions.

The Dutch, ſoon after this, having thrown off the Spaniſh yoke, and being not ſatisfied with ſupporting their independence by a ſucceſsful defenſive war, being fluſhed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, purſued the Spaniards into the remoteſt receſſes of their extenſive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the ſpoils of their former maſters. They particularly attacked the poſſeſ-

ſions of the Portugueſe; they took almoſt all their fortreſſes in the Eaſt Indies, and then turned their arms upon Braſil, where they took ſeven of the captainſhips, or provinces; and would have ſubdued the whole colony, had not their career been ſtopped by the archbiſhop, at the head of his monks, and a few ſcattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Braſil; but their Weſt India company ſtill continuing their pretenſions to this country, and haraſſing the Portugueſe at ſea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country; which was accepted: and the Portugueſe have remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of all Braſil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spaniſh governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's ſiege, the Portugueſe frontier fortreſs called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was reſtored.

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## FRENCH AMERICA.

THE poſſeſſions of the French on the continent of America are at preſent inconſiderable. They were maſters of Canada and Louiſiana; but they have now loſt all footing in North America; though on the ſouthern continent they have ſtill a ſettlement, which is called

### CAYENNE, or EQUINOXIAL FRANCE.

IT is ſituated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the fiftieth and fifty-fifth of weſt longitude. It extends two hundred and forty miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and near three hundred miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, eaſt; by Amazonia, ſouth; and by Guiana, weſt. The chief town is Caen. All the coaſt is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for ſettlements: the French have, however, not yet extended them ſo far as they might; but they raiſe the ſame commodities which they have from the Weſt-India iſlands, and in no inconſiderable quantity. They have alſo taken poſſeſſion of the iſland of Cayenne, on this coaſt, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about forty-five miles in circumference. The iſland is very unhealthy; but, having ſome good harbours, the French have here ſome ſettlements, which raiſe ſugar and coffee.

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## FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were among the laſt nations who made ſettlements in the Weſt Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they purſued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable meaſures which they uſed in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending againſt the difficulties which it threw in their way.

ST. DOMINGO, or HISPANIOLA.] This iſland was at firſt poſ-

ſeſſed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the moſt conſiderable part has been long in the hands of the French, to whom the Spaniſh part was likewiſe ceded by the treaty of peace between the two nations in 1795. It muſt now, therefore, be conſidered as a French iſland.

It is ſituated between the ſeventeenth and twenty-firſt deg. north lat. and the ſixty-ſeventh and ſeventy-fourth of weſt long. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hiſpaniola was firſt diſcovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at leaſt a million. But ſuch was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to ſo infamous a height did they carry their oppreſſion of the poor natives, that they were reduced to ſixty thouſand in the ſpace of fifteen years. The face of the iſland preſents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and rivers; and the ſoil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle are ſo multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren parts of the rocks they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-weſt parts, which were in the poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The population of this iſland was eſtimated, in 1788, at 27,717 white people; 21,808 free people of colour: and 405,528 ſlaves. Its trade employed 580 large ſhips, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce. The Spaniſh ſhips exported, in French goods or money, 1,400,000 dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony; ninety-eight French ſhips, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 26,500 negroes, who ſold for eight millions of dollars.

The moſt ancient town in this iſland, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is named, eſpecially by the French. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Meſtizos, and Negroes.

The French towns are, Cape François, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. Before its deſtruction in 1793, it contained about eight thouſand inhabitants, whites, people of colour, and ſlaves. It is the governor's reſidence in time of war, as Port-au-Prince is in time of peace. The Mole, though inferior to theſe in other reſpects, is the firſt port in the iſland for ſafety in time of war, being by nature and art ſtrongly fortified. The other towns and ports of any note are, Fort Dauphin, St. Mark, Leogane, Petit Goave, Jeremie, Les Cayes, St. Louis, and Jacmel.

In the night between the 22d and 23d of Auguſt, 1791, a moſt alarming inſurrection of the negroes began on the French plantations upon this iſland. A ſcene of the moſt horrid cruelties enſued. In a little time no leſs than one hundred thouſand negroes were in rebellion, and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern

province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were filled with carnage and deluged with blood. In this dreadful conflict, which has been of long continuance, the white coloniſts of St. Domingo have been extirpated or expelled, and the whole power of the iſland conſequently veſted in the mulattoes, the negroes, and the lower claſſes of the French inhabitants. The ſovereign authority has fallen into the hands of ſome of the people of colour; the negroes who were ſlaves have been, during the greater part of the ſix years which have nearly elapſed ſince this change was effected, emancipated from their chains, and the majority of them trained to arms. In a word, it is the decided opinion of the beſt and moſt competent judges, that all the powers of Europe, combined, could not now fruſtrate the views of the people of colour in St. Domingo; and that a few years will preſent us with the new and perhaps formidable phænomenon of a black republic, conſtituted in the nobleſt iſland of the weſtern ocean, in alliance with America, and only connected with that continent.

In the month of October, 1793, the Engliſh effected a landing on this iſland, and made themſelves maſters of Jeremie, Cape Tiburon, the Mole, and ſeveral other places on the coaſt. The troops, however, ſuffered greatly by the unhealthineſs of the climate; ſeveral of the places they had gained poſſeſſion of were ſoon retaken; nor could they have retained the others, had it not been for the conteſts and mutual jealouſies of the whites and people of colour.

MARTINICO, which is ſituated between fourteen and fifteen degrees of north latitude, and in ſixty-one degrees weſt longitude, lying about forty leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes, is about ſixty miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, on every ſide, a number of agreeable and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and ſuch fruits as are found in the neighbouring iſlands. But ſugar is here, as in all the Weſt India iſlands, the principal commodity, of which they export a conſiderable quantity annually. Martinico was the reſidence of the governor of the French iſlands in theſe ſeas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, ſafe, and commodious, and ſo well fortified, that they uſed to bid defiance to the Engliſh, who, in vain, often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the Britiſh arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this iſland was added to the Britiſh empire; but it was given back at the treaty of peace. It was again taken by the Engliſh in 1794.

GUADALOUPE.] So called by Columbus from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain, is ſituated in ſixteen degrees north latitude, and in ſixty-two weſt longitude, about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and alſo as much ſouth of Antigua; being forty-five miles long, and thirty-eight broad. It is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; but the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry-boat. Its ſoil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This iſland is in a flouriſhing condition, and its exports of ſugar almoſt incredible. Like Martinico it was formerly attacked by the Engliſh, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759 it was reduced by the Britiſh arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763. It was again reduced by the Engliſh in 1794, but evacuated a few months after.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in fourteen degrees north latitude, and in ſixty-one degrees weſt longitude, eighty miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, is twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It received its name from being diſcovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the Engliſh, that this iſland, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to ſettle theſe iſlands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this iſland to France. The ſoil of St. Lucia, in the valleys, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleaſant rivers and well ſituated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain reſtrictions. The Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1778; but it was reſtored again to the French in 1783. It was taken by the Engliſh in 1794, ſurrendered again to the French in 1795, and re-captured by Great Britain in 1796.

TOBAGO.] This iſland is ſituated in eleven degrees odd min. north latitude, one hundred and twenty miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh main. It is about thirty-two miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt-India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and creeks are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kinds of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appear from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763 it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June 1781 it was taken by the French; and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1782. In 1793 it was again captured by the Britiſh arms.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, } are three ſmall iſlands ly-
AND MARIGALANTE, } ing in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtopher's, and of no great conſequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our Weſt-India trade. The former was given to Sweden in 1785.

The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated near Newfoundland, have been already mentioned in our account of that iſland, p. 955.

# DUTCH AMERICA,

## Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portugueſe had diſpoſſeſſed the Dutch of Braſil in the manner we have ſeen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to conſole themſelves with their rich poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, and to ſit down content in the Weſt with Surinam; a country once in the poſſeſſion of England, but of no great value whilſt we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three ſmall and barren iſlands in the north ſea, not far from the Spaniſh main.

Dutch Guiana is ſituated between five and ſeven degrees north lat. extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholeſome; and a conſiderable part of the coaſt is low, and covered with water. The chief ſettlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the ſame name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations thirty leagues above the mouth of this river. This was one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a leſs proſperous ſituation than it was ſome years ſince, owing, among other cauſes, to the wars with the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become ſo numerous, having increaſed from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almoſt inacceſſible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former maſters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themſelves, they have cultivated lands for their ſubſiſtence, and make frequent incurſions into the neighbouring plantations. The chief trade of Surinam conſiſts in ſugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, ſkins, and ſome valuable dyeing drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring hither horſes, live cattle, and proviſions, and take home a large quantity of melaſſes. Surinam was taken by the Engliſh in Auguſt 1799.

Connected with Surinam, we ſhall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Iſſequibo on the Spaniſh main, which ſurrendered to the Engliſh in the year 1781, and were repreſented as a very valuable acquiſition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the Britiſh Weſt-India iſlands united. But the report was either not believed or ſlighted; for the colonies were left defenceleſs, and ſoon were retaken by a French frigate. In the preſent war, however, they again ſurrendered to the Britiſh arms, April 21, 1796.

Dr. Bancroft obſerves, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddiſh-brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiſcuous intercourſe of theſe different people has likewiſe generated ſeveral intermediate caſts, whoſe colours immutably depend on their degree of conſanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes. Theſe are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with ſeveral intermediate ſubdiviſions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourſe. There are ſo great a number of birds, of various ſpecies, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that ſeveral perſons in this colony have employed

themſelves advantageouſly, with their ſlaves and dependents, in killing and preſerving birds for the cabinets of naturaliſts in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, ſilver, copper, or by a ſtick of ſome particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a ſhock perfectly reſembling that of electricity. There are an immenſe number and variety of ſnakes in this country, which form one of its principal inconveniences. A ſnake was killed ſome years ſince, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, eſq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largeſt place near the middle three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a ſmall amphibious creature, about the ſize of a pig four months old, covered with fine ſhort hair; and its fleſh, by the Europeans who reſide here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

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## DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA, } SITUATED in 17° 29′ N. lat. 63° 10′ W. long. and three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is only a mountain, about twenty-nine miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But though ſo ſmall, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch has made it to turn to very good account, and it is ſaid to contain 5000 whites and 15,000 negroes. The ſides of the mountain are diſpoſed in very pretty ſettlements; but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade, for which, however, it is not ſo well ſituated; and it has drawn the ſame advantage from its conſtant neutrality. But when hoſtilities were commenced by Great Britain againſt Holland, admiral Rodney was ſent with a conſiderable land and ſea force againſt St. Euſtatius, which, being incapable of any defence, ſurrendered at diſcretion on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiſcated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civiliſed nations, and very inconſiſtent with the humanity and generoſity by which the Engliſh nation were formerly characteriſed. The reaſon aſſigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Euſtatius had aſſiſted the revolted colonies with naval and other ſtores. But on the 27th of November, the ſame year, St. Euſtatius was retaken by the French under the command of the marquis de Bouillé, though their force conſiſted of only three frigates and ſome ſmall craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It ſeems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders ſhould every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting againſt an untriendly nature; for this iſland is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America: yet the Dutch have entirely

remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt, and by far one of the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the Weſt Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handſome; the private houſes commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; ſome of them ſo well contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock. Though this iſland is naturally barren, the induſtry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar: it has, beſides, good ſalt-works, for the produce of which there is a briſk demand from the Engliſh iſlands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this iſland of moſt advantage to the Dutch is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch here for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda-coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloths, laces, ſilks, ribbands, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt-India, which is alſo their African, company annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers' ſhops, with every thing that has grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, goes off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, Jeſuit's bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in times of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than 500,000l. but in the time of war the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt Indies; it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarcely any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied, either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the Engliſh bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt-India company alone: at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences; the

company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The ſmall iſlands of Saba and St. Martin's, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatia, hardly deſerve to be mentioned: they were both captured by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, at the time when St. Euſtatia ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain; but were afterwards retaken by the French.

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## DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconſiderable iſland of the Caribbees, is ſituate in 64 degrees weſt long. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

STE. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt-India company, were ill managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince the late king of Denmark bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the Weſt-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale: and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh main, and return with money, in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to thrive very faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of very great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement.

# NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been conſiderably augmented by the late diſcoveries of the Ruſſians, and ſtill more by thoſe that have been made by Britiſh navigators in the preſent reign, which have been numerous and important; and of theſe diſcoveries we ſhall therefore give a compendious account.

## NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS conſiſts of ſeveral groups of iſlands, which are ſituated between the eaſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka and the weſtern coaſt of the continent of America*. Mr. Muller divides theſe iſlands into four principal groups, the firſt two of which are ſtyled the Aleutian iſlands. The firſt group, which is called by ſome of the iſlanders Saſignan, comprehends, 1. Beering's Iſland; 2. Copper Iſland; 3. Otma; 4. Samyra, or Shemyia; 5. Anakta. The ſecond group is called Khao, and compriſes eight iſlands, viz. 1. Immak; 2. Kiſka; 3. Tchetchia; 4. Ava; 5. Kavia; 6. Tſchangulek; 7. Ulagama; 8. Amtſchidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the iſlands known to the Ruſſians under the name of Andreanoffſki Oſtrova; ſixteen of which are mentioned under the following names: 1. Amatkinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navotſha; 5. Uliga; 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak; 8. Illaſk, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10. Kanaga, which has alſo a volcano; 11. Leg; 12. Sketſhuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Gorleoi; 15. Otchu; 16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends ſixteen iſlands; which are called by the Ruſſians Lyſ-ſic Oſtrova, or the *Fox Iſlands*; and which are named, 1. Amuchta; 2. Tſchigama; 3. Tſchegula; 4. Uniſtra; 5. Ulaga; 6. Tauagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun-Alaſh-ſka; 12. Unimma; 13. Uligan; 14. Anturo Leiſſume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senagak.

Some of theſe iſlands are only inhabited occaſionally, and for ſome months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who conſtantly reſide in them. Copper Iſland receives its name from the copper which the ſea throws up on its coaſts. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are in general of a ſhort ſtature, with ſtrong and robuſt limbs, but free and ſupple. They have lank black hair and little beard, flattiſh faces and fair ſkins. They are for the moſt part well made, and of ſtrong conſtitutions, ſuitable to the boiſterous climate of their iſles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian iſles live upon the roots which grow wild, and ſea animals. They do not employ themſelves in catching fiſh, though the rivers

* Mr. Coxe obſerves, that "the firſt project for making diſcoveries in that tempeſtuous ſea which lies between Kamtſchatka and America was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expenſe of the crown; but, when it was diſcovered that the iſlands of that ſea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in ſimilar expeditions; and, within a period of ten years, more important diſcoveries were made by theſe individuals, at their own private coſt, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The inveſtigation of uſeful knowledge has alſo been greatly encouraged by the late empreſs of Ruſſia; and the moſt diſtant parts of her vaſt dominions, and other countries and iſlands, have been explored, at her expenſe, by perſons of abilities and learning; in conſequence of which, conſiderable diſcoveries have been made.

abound with all kinds of ſalmon, and the ſea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the ſkins of birds, and of ſea otters.

The Fox iſlands are ſo called from the great number of black, gray, and red foxes with which they abound. The dreſs of the inhabitants conſiſts of a cap, and a fur coat which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-ſkin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fiſhing caps they place a ſmall board like a ſkreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of ſea-bears, and ornamented with glaſs beads which they receive in barter from the Ruſſians. At their feſtivals and dancing parties they uſe a much more ſhowy ſort of caps. They feed upon the fleſh of all ſorts of ſea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they chooſe to dreſs their victuals, they make uſe of a hollow ſtone: having placed the fiſh or fleſh therein, they cover it with another, and cloſe the interſtices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two ſtones, and light a fire under it. The proviſion intended for keeping is dried without ſalt in the open air. Their weapons conſiſt of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they uſe wooden ſhields.

The moſt perfect equality reigns among theſe iſlanders. They have neither chiefs nor ſuperiors, neither laws nor puniſhments. They live together in families, and ſocieties of ſeveral families united, which form what they call a race, who, in caſe of an attack, or defence, mutually help and ſupport each other. The inhabitants of the ſame iſland always pretend to be of the ſame race; and every perſon looks upon his iſland as a poſſeſſion, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the ſame ſociety. Feaſts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one iſland are viſited by thoſe of the others. The men of the village meet their gueſts beating drums, and preceded by the women, who ſing and dance. At the concluſion of the dance, the hoſts ſerve up their beſt proviſions, and invite their gueſts to partake of the feaſt. They feed their children when very young with the coarſeſt fleſh, and for the moſt part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the ſea ſide, and, whether it be ſummer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This cuſtom is ſo far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them againſt the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the leaſt inconvenience. They ſeldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are deſirous of warming themſelves, they light a bundle of hay, and ſtand over it; or elſe they ſet fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow ſtone. They have a good ſhare of plain natural ſenſe, but are rather ſlow of underſtanding. They ſeem cold and indifferent in moſt of their actions; but let an injury, or even a ſuſpicion only, rouſe them from this phlegmatic ſtate, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the moſt violent revenge, without any regard to the conſequences. The leaſt affliction prompts them to ſuicide; the apprehenſion of even an uncertain evil often leads them to deſpair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent inſenſibility.

## NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

FROM the obſervations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the weſtern coaſt of North America, in the neighbourhood of Prince William's Sound, and to the latitude of 64° north, it appeared that a

ſtrong ſimilarity was diſcernible between them and the Eſquimaux on the eaſtern coaſt; whence it was conjectured by ſome that a communication by ſea exiſted between the eaſtern and weſtern ſides of that continent. In ſupport of this conjecture old accounts were revived of the diſcoveries of John de Fuca, and De Fonte or De Fuentes; the one a Greek pilot, who made his voyage in 1592, and the other a Spaniſh or Portugueſe admiral, who ſailed in 1640. John de Fuca had related that between the 47th and 48th degrees of north latitude he had entered a broad inlet which led him into a far broader ſea, wherein he ſailed above twenty days; and De Fonte had ſailed through crooked channels in an extenſive archipelago 260 leagues, and 60 leagues up a navigable river which flowed into it, in 53° of north latitude, and communicated, by other lakes and rivers, with a paſſage in which a ſhip had arrived from Boſton in New England. The truth of theſe ancient accounts appeared to be ſtrongly corroborated, ſome years ſince, by the diſcovery ſaid to be made by one Mr. Etches, who had fitted out ſome ſhips for the fur trade, that all the weſtern coaſt of America, from lat. 48° to 57° north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of iſlands which had never been explored, and that theſe concealed the entrance to a vaſt inland ſea, like the Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which ſeemed likewiſe to be full of iſlands. Among theſe, Mr. Etches' ſhip, the Princeſs Royal, was ſaid to have penetrated ſeveral hundred leagues, in a north-eaſt direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudſon's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the archipelago juſt mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new mediterranean ſea.

The exiſtence of any ſuch inland ſea is, however, now, completely diſproved by the voyage of the late captain Vancouver, who, during the ſummers of 1792, 1793, and 1794, explored and accurately ſurveyed the whole weſtern coaſt of North America, from lat. 30° to 60°. Between the 47th and 57th degrees of north latitude there is indeed an archipelago, compoſed of innumerable iſlands and crooked channels; but he no where found either the inlet of John de Fuca, the river of De Fonte, or the inland ſea of Mr. Etches' ſhip.—"The preciſion," ſays captain Vancouver, "with which the ſurvey of the coaſt of North-Weſt America has been carried into effect, will, I truſt, remove every doubt, and ſet aſide every opinion of *a north-weſt paſſage*, or any water communication navigable for ſhipping, exiſting between the North Pacific and the interior of the American continent, within the limits of our reſearches."

This coaſt, with very little deviation, has the appearance of one continued foreſt, being covered with pines of different ſpecies, intermixed with alder, birch, and other trees. The natives of the northern parts are in general ſhort in ſtature, with faces flat and round, high cheek-bones, and flat noſes. They have ſome very peculiar cuſtoms of mutilating or diſfiguring their perſons, probably by way of ornament, though to us they appear diſguſting and even hideous. At Port Trinidada, in lat. 41° north, the cuſtom, ſays captain Vancouver, "was particularly ſingular, and muſt be attended with much pain in the firſt inſtance, and great inconvenience ever after. All the teeth of both ſexes were, by ſome proceſs, ground uniformly down, horizontally to the gums; the women eſpecially, carrying the faſhion to an extreme, had their teeth reduced even below this level; and ornamented the lower lip with three perpendicular rows of punctuation, one from each corner of the mouth, and one in the middle, occupying three fifths of the lip and chin." On other parts of this coaſt the women make a horizontal inciſion in the

under lip, extending from one corner of the mouth to the other, entirely through the fleſh, which orifice is by degrees ſufficiently ſtretched to admit an ornament made of wood, which is confined cloſe to the gums of the lower jaw, with the external ſurface projecting horizontally. Theſe wooden ornaments are oval, and reſemble a ſmall oval platter or diſh made concave on both ſides: they are of various ſizes; ſome of them above three inches in length, and an inch and a half broad. The chief object of civilized nations in navigating this coaſt, hitherto, has been to traffic with the natives for furs, which they give in exchange for pieces of iron, nails, beads, penknives, and other trifling trinkets. Theſe furs are carried to China, and diſpoſed of at a great profit. The ſkins obtained are thoſe of the ſea-otter, racoon, pine-martin, land-beaver, and earleſs marmot. Ginſeng, copper, oil, and ſome other commodities, might alſo be procured.

In 1788, ſome Engliſh merchants engaged in this trade formed a ſettlement in King George's Sound, ſince called Nootka Sound from the name by which it is called by the natives. The Spaniards, however, being jealous of the intruſion of the Engliſh into a part of the world which they long regarded as their excluſive property, ſent a frigate from Mexico, which captured two Engliſh veſſels, and took poſſeſſion of the ſettlement. The Britiſh miniſtry, on receiving intelligence of this tranſaction, fitted out a powerful armament to give weight to their demand of reparation; but the affair was amicably terminated by a convention in 1790.

Nootka Sound is ſituated in lat. 49° 33′ north, long. 126° 48′ weſt, on an iſland about 300 miles in length and 80 in breadth, named by captain Vancouver, in 1792, Quadra and Vancouver's Iſland, in compliment to Senor Quadra, the Spaniſh commandant at Nootka.

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## THE PELEW ISLANDS.

THE exiſtence and ſituation of theſe iſlands were probably known to the Spaniards at a diſtant period; but from a report among the neighbouring iſlands, of their being inhabited by a ſavage race of cannibals, it appears that there never had been the leaſt communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope packet (belonging to the Eaſt-India company) was wrecked on one of them, in Auguſt 1783. From the accounts given of theſe iſlands, by captain Wilſon, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are ſituated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of eaſt longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N.E. and S.W. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce ſugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the ſurrounding ſeas abound with the fineſt and greateſt variety of fiſh.

The natives of theſe iſlands are a ſtout, well-made people, above the middle ſtature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is underſtood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two ſmall aprons, one behind, and one before, made of the huſks of the cocoa nut dyed with different ſhades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is abſolute, but his power is exerciſed more with the mildneſs of a father than a ſovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occaſionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or chiefs, and confers a ſingular honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are diſtinguiſhed by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea which the account publiſhed by captain Wilſon gives us of theſe iſlanders, is that of a people who, though naturally ignorant of the arts and ſciences, and living in the ſimpleſt ſtate of nature, yet poſſeſs all that genuine politeneſs, that delicacy, and chaſtity of intercourſe between the ſexes, that reſpect for perſonal property, that ſubordination to government, and thoſe habits of induſtry, which are ſo rarely united in the more civiliſed ſocieties of modern times.

It appears, that when the Engliſh were thrown on one of theſe iſlands, they were received by the natives with the greateſt humanity and hoſpitality; and, till their departure, experienced the utmoſt courteſy and attention. "They felt our people were diſtreſſed, and in conſequence wiſhed they ſhould ſhare whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence that beſtows and ſpreads its favours with a diſtant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a ſcene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring; and whilſt their liberality gratified the ſenſe, their virtue ſtruck the heart."

## THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Quiros in 1595: their ſituation was better aſcertained by captain Cook in 1774. They are five in number, and named St. Chriſtina, Magdalena, St. Dominica, St. Pedro, and Hood. Captain Cook, in his ſecond voyage, lay ſome time at the firſt of theſe, which is ſituated in 9° 55′ ſouth latitude, and 139° 9′ weſt longitude. St. Dominica is the largeſt, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the ſame as thoſe of the Society Iſles.

## INGRAHAM's ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands were diſcovered by captain Joſeph Ingraham, of Boſton, commander of the brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April, 1791. They lie N. N. W. from the Marqueſas Iſlands, from 35 to 50 leagues diſtant, in about 9° of ſouth latitude, and from 140 to 141 weſt longitude from London. They are ſeven in number, and were named by captain Ingraham, Waſhington, Adams, Lincoln, Federal, Franklin, Hancock, Knox.

Moſt if not all of theſe iſlands are inhabited, and appear generally to be diverſified with hills and valleys, and to be well wooded, and very pleaſant. The people reſemble thoſe of the Marqueſas Iſlands, as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared friendly,

# OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE's ISLAND.

THIS iſland was diſcovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin *, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is ſituated between the 17th degree 28 min. and the 17th degree 53 min. ſouth latitude, and between the 140th degree 11 min. and the 149th degree 39 min. weſt longitude. It conſiſts of two peninſulas, of a ſomewhat circular form, joined by an iſthmus, and is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form ſeveral excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almoſt any number of the largeſt ſhips. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almoſt entirely ſurrounds each peninſula, and behind this border the land riſes in ridges that run up into the middle of theſe diviſions, and theſe form mountains that may be ſeen at ſixty leagues diſtance. The ſoil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the moſt delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the ſea is in few places more

* The Dolphin was ſent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expenſe of the Britiſh government, in Auguſt, 1766, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Theſe veſſels proceeded together, till they came within ſight of the South Sea, at the weſtern entrance of the Strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June, 1767, captain Wallis diſcovered an iſland, about four miles long and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitſun-Iſland*, it being diſcovered on Whitſun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 26′ S. and its longitude 137° 56′ W. The next day he diſcovered another iſland, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Iſland*. The inhabitants of this iſland, captain Wallis ſays, were of a middling ſtature, dark complexion, and long black hair, which hung looſe over their ſhoulders. The men were well made, and the women handſome. Their clothing was a kind of coarſe cloth or matting, which was faſtened about their middle, and ſeemed capable of being brought up round their ſhoulders. This iſland is about ſix miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19° 18′ S. longitude 138° 4′ W. In the ſpace of a few days after, he alſo diſcovered ſeveral other ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the names of *Egmont Iſland*, *Glouceſter Iſland*, *Cumberland Iſland*, *Prince William Henry's Iſland*, and *Oſnaburgh Iſland*.

On the 19th of the ſame month he diſcovered the iſland of Otaheite; and after he had quitted that iſland, he diſcovered, on the 28th of July, 1767, another iſland about ſix miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Iſland*; and on the 30th of the ſame month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Iſland*. After having diſcovered ſome other ſmall iſlands, one of which was named *Wallis's Iſland*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November; at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768; and his ſhip anchored ſafely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis in the Dolphin, having paſſed through the Strait of Magellan, and made ſome ſtay at the iſland of Maſafuero, diſcovered, on the 2d of July, 1767, an iſland about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Iſland*. It lies in latitude 25° 2′ S. longitude 133° 21′ W. and about a thouſand leagues to the weſtward of the continent of America. The 11th of the ſame month he diſcovered another ſmall iſland, to which he gave the name of *the Biſhop of Oſnaburgh's Iſland*. The next day he diſcovered two other ſmall iſlands, which he called *the Duke of Glouceſter's Iſlands*. The following month he diſcovered a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Iſlands*, and alſo three others, which he named *Gower's Iſland*, *Simpſon's Iſland*, and *Carteret's Iſland*. On the 24th of the ſame month he diſcovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Iſland*, which lies in latitude 4° 50′ S. and the next day *Winchelſea's Iſland*, which is diſtant about ten leagues in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards diſcovered ſeveral other iſlands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March 1769.

than a mile and a half broad; and this, together with ſome of the valleys, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made ſome ſtay at this iſland; and it was afterwards viſited again by captain Cook in the Endeavour, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by Joſeph Banks, Eſq. now Sir Joſeph Banks, and Dr. Solander; and thoſe gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate ſurvey of the iſland.

Some parts of the iſland of Otaheite are very populous; and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole iſland amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, ſtrong, well-limbed, and finely ſhaped; the women are of an inferior ſize, but handſome, and very amorous. Their clothing conſiſts of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greateſt part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houſes, thoſe which are of a middling ſize, are of an oblong ſquare, about twenty-four feet long, and eleven wide, with a ſhelving roof ſupported on three rows of poſts, parallel to each other, one row on each ſide, and one in the middle. The utmoſt height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each ſide reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the reſt is open, no part being incloſed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm leaves, and the floor covered ſome inches deep with ſoft hay, over which they lay mats; upon which they ſit in the day, and ſleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and thoſe they uſe are made of ſtones, or ſome kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanlineſs; for both men and women conſtantly waſh their whole bodies in running water three times a day. Their language is ſoft and melodious, and abounds with vowels. There were no tame animals upon the iſland but hogs, dogs, and poultry; but the Engliſh and Spaniards have ſince carried thither bulls, cows, ſheep, goats, a horſe and mare, geeſe, ducks, peacocks, turkeys, and alſo cats. The only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds; rats, and a very few ſerpents. The ſea, however, ſupplies the inhabitants with a very great variety of the moſt excellent fiſh.

In other countries the men cut their hair ſhort, and the women pride themſelves on its length; but here the women always cut it ſhort round their ears, and the men (except the fiſhers, who are almoſt continually in the water, ſuffer it to ſpread over their ſhoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the cuſtom of diſcolouring the ſkin, by pricking it with a ſmall inſtrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This is performed upon the youth of both ſexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on ſeveral parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different kinds of trees. The fineſt and whiteſt is made of the Chineſe paper mulberry-tree; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another conſiderable manufacture is matting, ſome of which is finer, and in every reſpect better, than any we have in Europe. The coarſer ſort ſerves them to ſleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewiſe very dextrous in making wicker-work; their baſkets are of a thouſand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one ſupreme Deity, but at the ſame

time acknowledge a variety of ſubordinate Deities; they offer up their prayers without the uſe of idols, and believe the exiſtence of the ſoul in a ſeparate ſtate, where there are two ſituations, of different degrees of happineſs. Among theſe people a ſubordination is eſtabliſhed, which ſomewhat reſembles the early ſtate of the European nations under the feudal ſyſtem. If a general attack happens to be made upon the iſland, every diſtrict is obliged to furniſh its proportion of ſoldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are ſlings, which they uſe with great dexterity, and clubs of about ſix or ſeven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are conſtructed for warlike operations.

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## THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the ſeveral iſlands ſo called, and which were diſcovered by captain Cook *, in the year 1769, the principal are HUAHEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about 31 leagues to the

* At the cloſe of the year 1767, it was reſolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to ſend perſons into ſome part of the South Sea, to obſerve a tranſit of the planet Venus over the Sun's diſk, which, according to aſtronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the iſlands called Marqueſas de Mendoza, or thoſe of Rotterdam or Amſterdam, were the propereſt places then known for making ſuch obſervations. In conſequence of theſe reſolutions, it was recommended to his majeſty, in a memorial from the ſociety, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleaſed to order ſuch an obſervation to be made; upon which his majeſty ſignified to the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty his pleaſure that a ſhip ſhould be provided to carry ſuch obſervers as the ſociety ſhould think fit, to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark, of three hundred and ſeventy tons, was prepared for that purpoſe. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was ſoon after, by the Royal Society, appointed, with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had long been aſſiſtant to Dr. Bradley at the Royal Obſervatory at Greenwich, to obſerve the tranſit. But while this veſſel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this aſtronomical obſervation, he, by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May, 1768, the day before he landed at Haſtings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the iſland of Otaheite: the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in anſwer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their obſervers ſent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook ſet ſail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of Auguſt, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joſeph Banks, Eſq. and Dr. Solander. They made no diſcovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Iſland, Two Groups, Bird Iſland, and Chain Iſland; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their ſtay at that iſland, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and, on the 4th of June, the whole paſſage of the planet Venus over the Sun's diſk was obſerved by them with great advantage. The reſult of their obſervations may be found in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook diſcovered and viſited the Society Iſlands and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the ſouth till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes, longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes W. and afterwards made an accurate ſurvey of the coaſt of New Zealand. In November he diſcovered a chain of iſlands, which he called *Barrier Iſlands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September, 1770, arrived at the iſland of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was reſolved to equip two ſhips, in order to make farther diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Accord-

north-weſt of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the ſame, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants ſeem to be larger made, and more ſtout than thoſe of Otaheite. Mr. Banks meaſured one of the men, and found him to be ſix feet three inches and a half high; yet they are ſo indolent, that he could not perſuade one of them to go up to the hills with him; for they ſaid, if they were to attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than thoſe of Otaheite, and both ſexes appear leſs timid and leſs curious; though in their dreſs, language, and almoſt every other circumſtance, they are the ſame. Their houſes are neat, and they have boat-houſes that are

ingly the Reſolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpoſe; the firſt was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They ſailed from Plymouth Sound on the 13th of July, 1772; and on the 29th of the ſame month arrived at the iſland of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having ſought in vain for a ſouthern continent. In that month the Reſolution and the Adventure ſeparated, in conſequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In Auguſt they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they diſcovered Harvey's Iſland. On the ſecond of October they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Iſlands; and about the cloſe of that month the Reſolution and the Adventure were ſeparated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Reſolution, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern polar regions, but was ſtopped in his progreſs by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes ſouth; longitude 100 degrees 54 minutes weſt. He then proceeded to Eaſter Iſland, where he arrived in March, 1774, as he did alſo in the ſame month at the Marqueſas Iſlands. He afterwards diſcovered four iſlands, which he named Palliſer's Iſlands; and again ſteered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made ſome ſtay, and alſo viſited the neighbouring iſles. In Auguſt he came to the New Hebrides, ſome of which were firſt diſcovered by him. After leaving theſe iſlands, he ſteered to the ſouthward a few days, and diſcovered New Caledonia. Having ſurveyed the ſouth-weſt coaſt of this iſland, captain Cook ſteered again for New Zealand, in order to refreſh his crew, and put his ſhip into a condition to encounter the danger attending the navigation in the high ſouthern latitudes. Directing his courſe to the ſouth and eaſt, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees 6 minutes ſouth, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes weſt, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of diſcovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a reſolution to ſteer directly for the weſt entrance of the Straits of Magellan, with a view of coaſting and ſurveying the outermoſt or ſouth ſide of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 58 or 59, and ſteering nearly eaſt, he arrived off the weſtern mouth of the Straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in his new route. In January, 1775, he diſcovered a large and dreary iſland, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards diſcovered various capes and elevated ſnow-clad coaſts, to the moſt ſouthern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Thule*, as being the neareſt land to that pole which has yet been diſcovered. In February he diſcovered *Sandwich Land*, and ſeveral iſlands covered with ſnow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England in the Adventure a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable diſcovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by ſome of the ſavages of New Zealand; ſo that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exiſt; and, indeed, in the courſe of theſe voyages of diſcovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the courſe of his voyage in the Reſolution, he had made the circuit of the ſouthern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traverſed it in ſuch a manner, as to leave not the leaſt room for the poſſibility of there being a ſouthern continent, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deſerves alſo to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of a hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from fifty-two degrees north to ſeventy-one degrees ſouth, with the loſs of only one man by ſickneſs; and this appears, in a conſiderable degree, to have ariſen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preſerving the health of his men.

remarkably large. Ulitea is about ſeven or eight leagues to the ſouth-weſtward of Huaheine, and is a much larger iſland, but appears neither ſo fertile nor ſo populous. The principal refreſhments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls; but the two laſt are rather ſcarce. Otaha is divided from Ulitea by a ſtrait, that in the narroweſt part is not above two miles broad. This iſland affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the ſame kind as that of the other iſlands. About four leagues to the north-weſt of Otaha lies Bolabola, which is ſurrounded by a reef of rocks and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compaſs. To theſe iſlands, and thoſe of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles to the weſtward of Bolabola, containing ſix in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Iſlands.

## OHETEROA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. ſouth, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. weſt from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither ſo populous nor ſo fertile as ſome of the other iſlands in theſe ſeas. The inhabitants are luſty and well made, but are rather browner than thoſe of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa wood, which is very hard, and ſome of them are near twenty feet long.

## THE NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands, which were diſcovered by M. de Bougainville, and explored by the unfortunate De la Pérouſe in 1787, are ten in number, and called by the natives Opoun, Leone, Fanfoue, Maouna, Oyolava, Calinaſſe, Pola, Shika, Oſſamo, and Ouera. Opoun, the moſt ſoutherly as well as the moſt eaſterly of theſe iſlands, lies in 14° 7′ ſouth latitude, and 169° 7′ weſt longitude. At Maouna, M. de la Pérouſe, commander of the French ſhips the Bouſſole and Aſtrolabe, met with his firſt fatal accident: M. de Langle, captain of the Aſtrolabe, and eleven officers and ſailors, being maſſacred by the natives. Oyolava is ſeparated from Maouna by a channel about nine leagues wide, and is at leaſt equal to Otaheite in extent, fertility, and population. The iſland of Pola is ſomewhat ſmaller than that of Oyolava, but equally beautiful. The eaſtern iſlands, Opoun, Leone, and Fanfoue, are ſmall, eſpecially the laſt two, which are about five miles in circumference; but Maouna, Oyolava, and Pola, may be numbered among the largeſt and moſt beautiful iſlands of the South Sea. They combine the advantages of a ſoil fruitful without culture, and a climate that renders cloathing unneceſſary. They produce in abundance the bread-fruit, cocoa-

nut, the banana, the guava, and the orange. The inhabitants are a ſtrong and handſome race of men. Their uſual height is five feet ten or eleven inches, and ſix feet; but their ſtature is leſs aſtoniſhing than the coloſſal proportions of the different parts of their bodies. The men have the body painted or tattooed, ſo that any one would ſuppoſe them cloathed, though they go almoſt naked. They have only a girdle of ſea-weeds encircling their loins, which comes down to their knees, and gives them the appearance of the river gods of mythology. Their hair is very long, and they often twiſt it round their heads, and thus add to their native ferocity of countenance, which always expreſſes either ſurpriſe or anger. The ſtature of the women is proportional to that of the men. They are tall, ſlender, and not without grace, though in general diſguſting from their groſs effrontery and indecency. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands cultivate ſeveral arts with ſucceſs. Their houſes have even a kind of elegance, and they finiſh their work very neatly, with tools made of a very fine and compact ſpecies of baſaltes, in the form of an adze. They manufacture very fine mats, and ſome paper-ſtuffs. They are almoſt continually on the water, and do not go ſo much as from one village to another on foot, but perform all their journeys in canoes; on which account M. de Bougainville called theſe iſlands the *Navigators' Iſlands*. Their villages are all ſituated in creeks by the ſea-ſide, and have no paths from one to the other. In their diſpoſition they appear to be thieviſh, treacherous, and ferocious.

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## THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands were ſo named by captain Cook, in the year 1773, on account of the friendſhip which appeared to ſubſiſt among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to ſtrangers. Abel Janſen Taſman, an eminent Dutch navigator, firſt touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal iſlands. Captain Cook laboriouſly explored the whole cluſter, which he found to conſiſt of more than ſixty. The three iſlands which Taſman ſaw, he named New Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburgh. The firſt is the largeſt, and extends about twenty-one miles from eaſt to weſt, and about thirteen from north to ſouth. Theſe iſlands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great induſtry. The iſland of Amſterdam is interſected by ſtraight and pleaſant roads, with fruit trees on each ſide, which afford ſhade from the ſcorching heat of the ſun.

The principal of theſe iſlands are, Tongataboo, or Amſterdam; Eaoowe, or Middleburg; Annamooka, or Rotterdam; Hapaee, and Lefooga. The firſt, which is the largeſt, lies in 21° 9′ ſouth latitude, and 174° 46′ weſt longitude. Eaoowe, when viewed from the ſhip at anchor, formed one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in nature, and very different from the others of the Friendly Iſles; which, being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here the land riſing gently to a conſiderable height, preſented an extenſive proſpect, with groves of trees interſperſed at irregular diſtances, in beautiful diſorder; the reſt is covered with graſs, except near the ſhores, which are entirely covered with fruit and other

trees; amon ſt which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the iſland as poſſible, captain Cook and ſome of his officers walked up to the higheſt point of it. From this place they had a view of almoſt the whole iſland, which conſiſted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was ſurveying this delightful proſpect," ſays captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myſelf with the pleaſing idea, that ſome future navigator may, from the ſame ſtation, behold theſe meadows ſtocked with cattle, brought to theſe iſlands by the ſhips of England; and that the completion of this ſingle benevolent purpoſe, independent of all other conſiderations, would ſufficiently mark to poſterity that our voyages had not been uſeleſs to the general intereſts of humanity."

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## NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally diſtinguiſhed in our maps and charts by the name of New Zealand, and was ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent; but it is now known, from the late diſcoveries of captain Cook, who ſailed round it, to conſiſt of two large iſlands, divided from each other by a ſtrait four or five leagues broad. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees ſouth, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees eaſt from Greenwich. One of theſe iſlands is for the moſt part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joſeph Banks and Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flouriſh here in the utmoſt luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is ſuppoſed that the winters are milder than thoſe in England, and the ſummers not hotter, though more equally warm; ſo that it is imagined, that if this country was ſettled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate induſtry, be ſoon ſupplied not only with the neceſſaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are foreſts of vaſt extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been deſcribed by naturaliſts. The inhabitants of New Zealand are ſtout and robuſt, and equal in ſtature to the largeſt Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been expoſed to the ſun, and in many not ſo deep; and both ſexes have good features. Their dreſs is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner ſimilar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattooing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally ſhown themſelves very hoſtile to the Europeans who have viſited them.

## THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by captain Cook to a cluſter of iſlands, the moſt northerly of which was ſeen by Quiros, the Spaniſh navigator, in 1606, and by him named Terra del Eſpiritu Santo. From that time till captain Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was ſuppoſed to be part of a great ſouthern continent, called *Terra Auſtralis Incognita*. But when captain Cook had ſailed round New Zealand, and along the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Reſolution, he reſolved to explore thoſe parts accurately; and, accordingly, in 1774, beſides aſcertaining the extent and ſituation of theſe iſlands, diſcovered ſeveral in the group which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are ſituated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. ſouth; and between 166 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. eaſt long. They conſiſt of the following iſlands, ſome of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Terra del Eſpiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Iſle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitſuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irronan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far diſtant from the New Hebrides, and ſouth weſtward of them, lies NEW CALEDONIA, a very large iſland, firſt diſcovered by captain Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-ſeven leagues long, but its breadth does not any where exceed ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of ſtout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a ſwarthy or dark cheſnut brown. A few leagues diſtant, are two ſmall iſlands, called the Iſland of Pines, and Botany Iſland.

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## NEW HOLLAND,

THE largeſt iſland in the world, and formerly ſuppoſed to be a part of that imaginary continent, called Terra Auſtralis Incognita, lies between 10 deg. 30 min. and 43 deg. ſouth latitude, and between 110 and 153 deg. 30 min. eaſt longitude; extending in all as much as the whole continent of Europe, the eaſtern coaſt running not leſs than 2000 miles in length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt. Its dimenſions from eaſt to weſt have not been ſo exactly aſcertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who viſited this part of the world at a time when the method of making obſervations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was leſs accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of the diſcoverers, as Van Dieman's land*, Carpentaria, &c. and though the general appellation of the

* According to accounts lately received, governor Hunter, the preſent governor of New South Wales, having conceived an idea that the land called Van Dieman's Land was not a part of the coaſt of New Holland, but that it was probably a group of iſlands ſeparated from its ſouthern extremity by a ſtrait, and being deſirous of aſcertaining the fact, fitted out a two-decked boat, of 15 tons burthen, built at Norfolk Iſland, and ſent her to the ſouthward, under the direction of the ſecond lieutenant and ſurgeon of

whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and weſt parts of the country. The eaſtern part, called New South Wales, was taken poſſeſſion of in his majeſty's name by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the Britiſh dominions, a colony being very lately formed there, chiefly of the convicts ſentenced to tranſportation.

The accounts of the climate and ſoil of this extenſive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various: different parts have been explored at different times, and at different ſeaſons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the ſea-coaſt, the only place on which any inhabitants have been diſcovered, appearing ſandy and barren; and as for the inland parts, which might reaſonably be ſuppoſed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural ſterility of the ſoil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet diſcovered.

One thing we are aſſured of by all who have ever viſited this country, that its coaſt is ſurrounded by very dangerous ſhoals and rocks, ſo that it is by no means eaſy to effect a landing upon it. A ſhoal called Houtman's Abrolhos, or ſhoal, from Frederick Houtman, commander of a fleet of Dutch Indiamen, in 1618, lies on the weſtern coaſt, on which commodore Pelſart, a Dutch navigator, was wrecked in 1629. When his ſhip, the Batavia, having on board 330 men, ſtruck on this ſhoal, there was no land in ſight, excepting ſome ſmall rocky iſlands, and one conſiderably larger, about three leagues diſtant. All theſe were explored in ſearch of freſh water; but none being found, they were obliged to ſail in their ſkiff to the continent, which they ſoon after diſcovered. But, on their approach, they found the coaſt ſo exceſſively rocky, that it was impoſſible to land. Continuing their courſe northward for two days, they found themſelves in 27 degrees of ſouth latitude; but ſtill the ſhore was ſo extremely ſteep, that there was no poſſibility of approaching it. It preſented the ſame appearance as far north as 24 degrees; but the men being now reſolved to get on ſhore at any rate, ſix of them, who were expert ſwimmers, threw themſelves into the ſea, and with much difficulty got to land. Here they employed themſelves in ſearching for freſh water, but, finding none, they were obliged to ſwim back again to their ſkiff. Next day they diſcovered a cape, from the extreme points of which ran a ridge of rocks, for about a mile into the ſea, with another behind it; but ſtill no paſſage was found to the continent. Another opening appeared about noon the ſame day, into which they ventured, though the paſſage was extremely dangerous, even for a ſkiff, having only two feet water, with a rugged ſtony bottom. Here, however, they effected a landing; but though they made the moſt diligent ſearch for freſh water, they could find neither rivulets, ſprings, nor even water that could be drank by digging of wells. The ſhoal on which commodore Pelſart was wrecked is placed by Dampier in 27 degrees ſouth latitude.

This navigator explored the coaſt of New Holland in 1688 and 1699. In the laſt of theſe voyages he fell in with the land in 26 deg. ſouth latitude; but could not land on account of the ſteepineſs of the ſhore. In 22 deg. 22 min. he found another ſhoal, which was the firſt

the Reliance man of war. They paſſed through a wide and extenſive ſtrait, and completely circumnavigated Van Dieman's Land, entered two rivers in it, and went many miles up with their little ſloop. The ſtrait is, in ſome places, more than a degree and a half wide, but ſtudded with a few ſcattered ſteep iſlands. A chart of this diſcovery is preparing to be ſent home.

he had met with ſince leaving the Abrolhos in 27 deg. In 20 deg. 21 min. he fell in with ſome rocky iſlands, which, from the nature of the tides, he ſuppoſed to extend in a range as far ſouth as Shark's Bay, in 25 deg. and nine or ten leagues in breadth from eaſt to weſt. In 18 deg. 21 min. he effected a landing; but the ſhore here, as in all other places viſited by this navigator, was exceſſively rocky at low water, ſo that it is then impoſſible to land. At high water, however, the tides riſe ſo high that boats may get over the rocks to a ſandy beach which runs all along the coaſt.

The ſouthern part of this iſland, viſited by captain Taſman, in 1642, was found leſs difficult of acceſs. He purſued the coaſt as far ſouth as 44 degrees, where it begins to run to the eaſtward; and from this time the country appears not to have been viſited by any Europeans, till the year 1770, when captain Furneaux, of the Adventure, reached the point we ſpeak of, lying in 43 deg. 17 min. ſouth, 145 deg. 36 min. and, by account, 143 deg. 10 min. eaſt from Greenwich. Several iſlands appeared to the north weſt, one of which was named, by captain Cook, Eddyſtone, from its reſemblance to the light-houſe of that name; and he obſerves that nature ſeems to have left theſe two rocks for the ſame purpoſe that the Eddyſtone light-houſe was built by man, viz. to give navigators warning of their danger; for they are the conſpicuous ſummits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the ſea in many places breaks very high. Their ſurface is white with the dung of ſea fowls, which makes them conſpicuous at a conſiderable diſtance.

This celebrated navigator, captain Cook, ſpent upwards of four months in ſurveying the the eaſtern coaſt, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of undeſcribed plants found on the ſhore, was called Botany Bay, and is the place for which the convicts were originally deſtined; though now they are ſettled in another part of the iſland, about fifteen miles to the northward, named, by captain Cook, Port Jackſon, the principal ſettlement being called Sydney Cove.

This was not viſited or explored by captain Cook, it was ſeen at the diſtance of between two and three miles from the coaſt; but, had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention, as a ſeaman, than Botany Bay, where he paſſed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackſon gradually extends into a noble and capacious baſin, having ſoundings ſufficient for the largeſt veſſels, and ſpace to accommodate, in perfect ſecurity, any number that could be aſſembled. It runs, chiefly in a weſtern direction, about thirteen miles into the country, and contains no leſs than a hundred ſmall coves formed by narrow necks of land, whoſe projections afford ſhelter from the winds.

Sydney Cove lies on the ſouth ſide of the harbour, between five and ſix miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is moſtly covered with wood, yet is ſo rocky, that it is not eaſy to comprehend how the trees could have found ſufficient nourithment to bring them to ſo conſiderable a magnitude. The ſoil in other parts of the coaſt, immediately about Port Jackſon, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the ſouth end of the harbour from the ſea, is chiefly ſand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany Bay, the firſt ſpace is occupied by a wood, in ſome parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad.

Beyond that, is a kind of heath, poor, ſandy, and full of ſwamps; but as far as the eye can reach to the weſtward, the country is one continued wood.

The name of Cumberland county was given by the government to this part of the territory. It is about fifty miles in length, and thirty broad. The boundaries fixed for Cumberland county were, on the weſt, Caermarthen and Lanſdown hills; on the north, the northern parts of Broken Bay; and to the ſouthward, the ſouthern parts of Botany Bay; thus including completely theſe three principal bays, and leaving the chief place of ſettlement, at Sydney Cove, nearly in the centre.

At the very firſt landing of governor Philip on the ſhore of Botany Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed; but on ſeeing the governor approach with ſigns of friendſhip, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

They were perfectly devoid of clothing, yet ſeemed fond of ornaments, putting the beads and red baize that were given them on their heads or necks, and appearing pleaſed to wear them.

The different coves of Port Jackſon were examined with all expedition, and the preference was given to one which had the fineſt ſpring of water, and in which ſhips can anchor ſo cloſe to the ſhore, that at a very ſmall expenſe quays may be conſtructed, at which the largeſt veſſels may unload.

After they had all landed at Sydney Cove, a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal ſtreets, the governor's houſe, main-guard, hoſpital, church, ſtore-houſes, and barracks. In ſome parts of this ſpace, temporary barracks are erected; but no permanent buildings will be allowed, except in conformity to the plan laid down. Should the town be farther extended in future, the forms of other ſtreets are alſo marked out, in ſuch a manner as to enſure a free circulation of air. The principal ſtreets, according to this deſign, will be two hundred feet wide.

The climate at Sydney Cove is conſidered, on the whole, as equal to the fineſt in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are ſeldom any fogs. The ſoil, though in general light, and rather ſandy in this part, is full as good as uſually is found ſo near the ſea-ſide. All the plants and fruit-trees brought from Braſil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the paſſage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful, both the European ſorts, and ſuch as are peculiar to New South Wales.

The natives of New Holland, in general, ſeem to have no great averſion to the new ſettlers; the only acts of hoſtility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fiſhing-grounds which the New Hollanders juſtly ſuppoſed to belong to themſelves. They appear, however, to be in too ſavage a ſtate to be capable as yet of deriving any inſtruction from their new neighbours. They are ſo ignorant of agriculture, that it ſeems moſt probable they do not even know the uſe of corn, and therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, ſet fire to that which the coloniſts had raiſed for their own uſe. To avoid ſuch diſagreeable incidents, a new ſettlement was begun on a ſmall uninhabited iſland, named *Norfolk Iſland*, lying in ſouth lat. twenty nine degrees, and eaſt long. 168 10, at the diſtance of twelve hundred miles from New Holland. The party ſent out to form this

ſettlement conſiſted only of twenty-ſix perſons, who took poſſeſſion on the 14th of February, 1788. This ſettlement was found ſo eligible, that in October, 1788, another party was ſent thither, ſo that the new colony, at the time the laſt advices were received conſiſted of forty-four men and ſixteen women; who, being ſupplied with eighteen months' proviſions, will probably be able to cultivate the ſoil in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to form a granary, which will put thoſe who ſettled on New Holland entirely out of danger from their barbarous neighbours.

For a more particular account of this new ſettlement, we refer our readers to the Voyage of Governor Philip to Botany Bay.

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## NEW GUINEA,

TILL the late diſcoveries, was thought to be the north coaſt of an extenſive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but captain Cook diſcovered a ſtrait between them, which runs north-eaſt, through which he ſailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow iſland, extending north-eaſt from the ſecond degree of ſouth latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees eaſt longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country conſiſts of a mixture of very high hills and valleys, interſperſed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and moſt of the trees, ſhrubs, and plants, that are found on the other South Sea iſlands. It affords from the ſea a variety of delightful proſpects. The inhabitants make nearly the ſame appearance as the New Hollanders on the other ſide the ſtraits.

To the north of New Guinea is NEW BRITAIN, which is ſituated in the fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and one hundred and fifty-two deg. nineteen min. eaſt longitude from Greenwich. It was ſuppoſed to be part of an imaginary continent, till captain Dampier found it to be an iſland, and ſailed through a ſtrait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found it was of much leſs extent than it was till then imagined to be, by ſailing through another ſtrait to the north, which ſeparates it from a long iſland, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and ſtately trees. To the eaſtward of New Britain, and in both the above ſtraits, are many iſlands, moſt of which are ſaid to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, about two hundred and ſeventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly-headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noſes and thick lips. North-weſtward of New Ireland, a cluſter of iſlands was ſeen by captain Carteret, lying very near each other, and ſuppoſed to conſiſt of twenty or thirty in number. One of theſe, which is of very conſiderable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; the reſt of the cluſter received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

## SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages of diſcovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clerke, in the Reſolution and Diſcovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage between the continents of Aſia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their courſe they diſcovered two iſlands which Captain Cook called Prince Edward's Iſles. The largeſt, about fifteen leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46-53 ſouth; long. 37-46; the other, about nine leagues in circuit, lat 46-40, and long. 38-8, eaſt, both barren, and almoſt covered with ſnow. From New Holland they ſailed to New Zealand, and afterwards they viſited the Friendly and the Society Iſles. In January, 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Iſles, which are twelve in number, and are ſituated between twenty-two deg. fifteen min. and eighteen deg. fifty-three min. north lat. The air of theſe iſlands is in general ſalubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the ſame with thoſe of the Society and Friendly Iſles. The inhabitants are of a middle ſize, ſtout, and well made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44 deg. 33 min. north, and long. 235 deg. 36 min. eaſt, they ſaw part of the American continent, bearing north-eaſt. They afterwards diſcovered King George's Sound, which is ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of America, and is extenſive: that part of it where the ſhips under the command of captain Cook anchored, is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. eaſt. The whole ſound is ſurrounded by high land, which in ſome places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle ſize, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they diſcovered Sandwich Sound in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour, in which the ſhips anchored, appeared to be almoſt ſurrounded with high land, which was covered with ſnow; and here they were viſited by ſome of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the iſland of Unalaſchka; and after their departure from thence, ſtill continued to trace the American coaſt, till they diſcovered the ſtrait which ſeparates it from the continent of Aſia. Here both the hemiſpheres preſented to the view a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the ſea between them not very deep. They paſſed the ſtrait, and arrived on the 20th of Auguſt, 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. long. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themſelves almoſt ſurrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eaſtward the cloſer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a ſtorm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a conſultation was therefore held on board the Reſolution, as ſoon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was reſolved, that as this paſſage was impracticable for any uſeful purpoſe of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it ſhould be proſecuted no farther; and eſpecially on account of the condition the ſhips were in, the approach of winter, and their great diſtance from any known place of refreſhment. The voyage, indeed, afforded ſufficient evidence, that no practicable paſſage exiſts between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the north; and this voyage alſo aſcertained the weſtern boundaries

of the great continent of America. On their return, it unfortunately happened that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives on the iſland of O'why'hee, one of the Sandwich Iſles, on the 14th of February, 1779; not ſo much by his own raſhneſs, as through the inadvertence and neglect of ſome of his own people. His death was univerſally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but alſo in other parts of Europe, by thoſe to whom his merits and public ſervices were known. In his laſt voyage he had explored the coaſt of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 ſec. north. After the death of captain Cook, the command devolved on captain Clerke, who died at ſea on his return to the ſouthward on the 22d day of Auguſt, 1779. The two ſhips returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October, 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article without inſerting the following character of captain Cook, to perpetuate the memory and ſervices of ſo excellent a navigator.

"Perhaps no ſcience ever received greater additions from the labours of a ſingle man than geography has done from thoſe of captain Cook. In his firſt voyage to the South Seas, he diſcovered the Society iſlands; determined the inſularity of New Zealand; diſcovered the ſtraits which ſeparate the two iſlands, and are called after his name; and made a complete ſurvey of both. He afterwards explored the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-ſeven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thouſand miles.

"In his ſecond expedition, he reſolved the great problem of a ſouthern continent, having traverſed that hemiſphere between the latitude of forty and ſeventy degrees, in ſuch a manner as not to leave a poſſibility of its exiſtence, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he diſcovered New Caledonia, the largeſt iſland in the Southern Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand; the Iſland of Georgia; and an unknown coaſt, which he named Sandwich Land, the Thule of the ſouthern hemiſphere; and having twice viſited the tropical ſeas, he ſettled the ſituations of the old, and made ſeveral new diſcoveries.

"But the laſt voyage is diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt, by the extent and importance of its diſcoveries. Beſides ſeveral ſmaller iſlands in the Southern Pacific, he diſcovered to the north of the equinoctial line the group called the Sandwich Iſlands, which, from their ſituation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of conſequence in the ſyſtem of European navigation than any other diſcovery in the South Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the weſtern coaſt of America, from the latitude of forty-three to ſeventy degrees north, containing an extent of three thouſand and five hundred miles; aſcertained the proximity of the two great continents of Aſia and America; paſſed the ſtraits between them, and ſurveyed the coaſt on each ſide, to ſuch a height of northern latitude, as to demonſtrate the impracticability of a paſſage, in that hemiſphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean, either by an eaſtern or a weſtern courſe. In ſhort, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japaneſe Archipelago, which ſtill remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

"The method which he diſcovered, and ſo ſucceſsfully purſued, of preſerving the health of ſeamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will tranſmit his name to future ages amongſt the friends and benefactors of mankind.

"Thoſe who are converſant in naval hiſtory, need not be told at how

dear a rate the advantages which have been ſought through the medium of long voyages at ſea have always been purchaſed. That dreadful diſorder which is peculiar to their ſervice, and whoſe ravages have marked the tracks of diſcoverers with circumſtances almoſt too ſhocking to relate, muſt, without exerciſing an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our ſeamen, have proved an inſuperable obſtacle to the proſecution of ſuch enterpriſes. It was reſerved for captain Cook to ſhow the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unuſual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminiſhing the probability of life, in the ſmalleſt degree."

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## TERRA-INCOGNITA, or UNKNOWN COUNTRIES.

NOTWITHSTANDING the amazing diſcoveries of navigators, and the progreſs made in geography ſince the firſt voyage of Columbus, anno 1402, there ſtill remain ſome countries, either abſolutely unknown, or very ſuperficially ſurveyed.

### IN AFRICA.

OF this quarter of the globe, the moderns are acquainted with the ſea-coaſts only, and theſe very imperfectly: the internal parts being little known to us; nor have we any ſatisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country bleſſed with a variety of climates, ſome of them the fineſt in the world.

### IN AMERICA.

IN North America, towards the pole, Labrador, or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, are very little known. All that vaſt tract on the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, from Canada and the Lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which waſhes America on the weſt, is likewiſe unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and the ſituation of the country, it is ſuppoſed to be fruitful. It is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom uſed to reſort to the great fair of Montréal, even from the diſtance of one thouſand miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazons on the South, is unknown, except a ſlip along the coaſt, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made ſome ſettlements, which, from the unhealthfulneſs of the climate, almoſt under the equator, and other cauſes, can hardly be extended any conſiderable way back.

The country of Amazonia, ſo called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly diſcovered, though it is ſituated between the European colonies of Peru and Braſil, and every-where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portugueſe; but being always attended with vaſt difficulties, ſo that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country, as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any ſettlement there.

Patagonia, at the ſouthern extremity of America, is ſometimes deſcribed as part of Chili; but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almoſt unknown, and is generally repreſented as a barren, inhoſpitable country. And here, in fifty-two degrees and a half ſouth lat. we fall in with the Straits of Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the iſlands of Terra del Fuego on the ſouth. Theſe ſtraits extend from eaſt to weſt 110 leagues, but the breadth in ſome places falls ſhort of one. They were firſt diſcovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portugueſe, in the ſervice of Spain, who ſailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby diſcovered a paſſage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been ſince conſidered as the firſt navigator that ſailed round the world: but having loſt his life in a ſkirmiſh with ſome Indians before the ſhips returned to Europe, the honour of being the firſt circumnavigator has been diſputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, paſſed the ſame ſtrait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the ſouthward of theſe ſtraits, diſcovered, in lat. fifty-four and a half, another paſſage, ſince known by the name of the Straits of Le Maire; and this paſſage, which has been generally preferred by ſucceeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anſon's Voyage, however, from fatal experience, adviſes mariners to keep clear of theſe ſtraits and iſlands, by running down to ſixty-one or ſixty-two degrees ſouth lat. before they attempt to ſet their face weſtward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intenſe cold in thoſe latitudes, render that paſſage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of ſummer.

# A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE;

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the moſt authentic Charts, Maps, and Obſervations.



| Names of Places. | Provinces. | Countries. | Quarter. | Lat. D. M. | Long. D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abbeville, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 50- 7 N. | 1-54 E. |
| Aberdeen | Aberdeenſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 57-22 N. | 1-40 W. |
| Abo, | Finland, | Sweden, | Europe | 60-27 N. | 22-18 E. |
| Acapulco, | Mexico, | North | America | 17-10 N. | 101-20 W. |
| Adrianople, | Romania, | Turkey, | Europe | 42-00 N. | 26-30 E. |
| Adriatic ſea, or Gulf of Venice | between | Italy and Turkey, | Europe | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| Achem, | Sumatra, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 5-22 N. | 95-29 E. |
| Adventure Iſle | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 17-05 S. | 144-12 W. |
| Agde, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-18 N. | 3-33 E. |
| Agen, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-12 N. | 0-40 E. |
| St. Agnes (lights) | Scillies, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 49-56 N. | 6-41 W. |
| Agra, | Agra, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 26-43 N. | 76-49 E. |
| Air, | Airſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-30 N. | 4-35 W. |
| Aix, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-31 N. | 5-31 E. |
| Albany, | New York, | North | America | 42-48 N. | 73-30 W. |
| Alby, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-55 N. | 2-13 E. |
| Aleppo, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 35-45 N. | 37-25 E. |
| Alexandretta, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 36-35 N. | 36-25 E. |
| Alexandria, | Lower Egypt, | Turkey, | Africa | 31-11 N. | 30-2 E. |
| Algiers, | Algiers, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-49 N. | 2-17 E. |
| Amboyna, | Amboyna Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 4-25 S. | 127-25 E. |
| Ambryn Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-09 S. | 168-17 E. |
| Amiens, | Iſle of France, | France, | Europe | 49-53 N. | 2-22 E. |
| AMSTERDAM, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-22 N. | 4-49 E. |
| Amſterdam Iſle, | | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 21-09 S. | 174-51 W. |
| Ancona, | March of Ancona, | Italy, | Europe | 43-37 N. | 13-35 E. |
| Angra, | Tercera Iſle, | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 38-39 N. | 27-07 W. |
| Antigua (St. John's town) | Antigua Iſle, | Carib. Sea, | N. America, | 17-04 N. | 62-04 W. |
| Antioch, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 36-30 N. | 36-40 E. |
| Antwerp, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-13 N. | 04-27 E. |
| Archipelago, | Iſlands of | Greece, | Europe | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| Apæ (Iſle) | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 16-46 S. | 168-32 E. |
| Archangel, | Dwina, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 64-34 N. | 38-59 E. |
| Aſcenſion Iſle, | | South Atlantic | Ocean, | 7-56 N. | 14-27 W. |
| Aſtracan, | Aſtracan, | Ruſſia, | Aſia, | 46-00 N. | 51-00 E. |
| Athens, | Achaia, | Turkey, | Europe | 38-05 N. | 23-57 E. |
| St. Auguſtin, | Madagaſcar | South Ind. Sea, | Africa | 23-35 S. | 43-13 E. |
| Aurora Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 15-08 S. | 168-22 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ava, | Ava, | East India, | Asia | 20-20 N. | 95-30 E. |
| Avignon, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-57 N. | 04-53 E. |
| Bagdad, | Eyraca Arabia, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-20 N. | 43-51 E. |
| Baltic sea, | between | Ger. and Swed. | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Balasore, | Orixa, | East India, | Asia | 21-20 N. | 86-05 E. |
| Balbec, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-30 N. | 37-00 E. |
| Baldivia, | Chili, | South | America | 39-35 S. | 81-10 W. |
| Barbuda Isle, | | Atlant. Ocean, | N. America | 17-49 N. | 61-55 W. |
| Barcelona, | Catalonia, | Spain, | Europe | 41-26 N. | 02-18 E. |
| Basil, | Basil, | Switzerland, | Europe | 47-35 N. | 07-34 E. |
| Basse Terre, | Guadaloupe, | Carib. Sea, | N. America | 15-59 N. | 61-54 W. |
| Bassora, | Eyraca Arabia, | Turkey, | Asia | 30-45 N. | 47-00 E. |
| Bastia, | Corsica, | Italy, | Europe | 42-20 N. | 09-40 E. |
| Batavia, | Java, | East India, | Asia | 06-10 S. | 106-56 E. |
| Bath, | Somersetshire, | England, | Europe | 51-22 N. | 02-16 W. |
| Bay of Biscay, | Coast of | France, | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Bay of Bengal, | Coast of | India, | Asia | Indian Ocean. | |
| Bayeux, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-16 N. | 00-47 E. |
| Belfast, | Ulster, | Ireland, | Europe | 54-30 N. | 06-30 W. |
| Belgrade, | Servia, | Turkey, | Europe | 45-00 N. | 21-20 E. |
| Bender, | Bassarabia, | Turkey, | Europe | 46-40 N. | 29-00 E. |
| Berlin, | Brandenburg, | Germany, | Europe | 52-32 N. | 13-31 E. |
| Bermudas, | Bermuda Isles, | Atlant. Ocean, | N. America | 36-25 N. | 63-23 W. |
| Bern, | Bern, | Switzerland, | Europe | 47-00 N. | 07-20 E. |
| Berwick, | Berwickshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-48 N. | 01-45 W. |
| Bencoolen, | Sumatra, | East India, | Asia | 03-49 S. | 102-05 E. |
| Bourdeaux, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-50 N. | 00-29 W. |
| Bayonne, | Gascony, | France, | Europe | 43-29 N. | 01-25 W. |
| Borroughston-nefs, | Linlithgowsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-48 N. | 03-44 W. |
| Boston, | Lincolnshire, | England, | Europe | 53-10 N. | 00-25 E. |
| Boston, | New England, | North | America | 42-25 N. | 70-32 W. |
| Bolabola, | Isle, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-32 S. | 151-47 W. |
| Bologne, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 50-43 N. | 1-31 E. |
| Bologna, | Bolognese, | Italy, | Europe | 44-29 N. | 11-26 E. |
| Bolscheriskoi, | Siberia, | Russia, | Asia | 52-54 N. | 156-42 E. |
| Bombay, | Bombay Isle, | East India, | Asia | 18-56 N. | 72-43 E. |
| Bridge-town, | Barbadoes, | Atlant. Ocean, | N. America | 13-05 N. | 58-03 W. |
| Bilboa, | Biscay, | Spain, | Europe | 43-26 N. | 03-18 W. |
| Birmingham, | Warwickshire, | England, | Europe | 52-30 N. | 01-50 W. |
| Bokharia, | Usbec | Tartary, | Asia | 39-15 N. | 67-00 E. |
| Breda, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-40 N. | 04-40 E. |
| Brest, | Bretany, | France, | Europe | 48-22 N. | 04-25 W. |
| Bremen, | Lower Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 53-25 N. | 08-20 E. |
| Bristol, | Somersetshire, | England, | Europe | 51-33 N. | 02-40 W. |
| Breslaw, | Silesia, | Bohemia, | Europe | 51-03 N. | 17-13 E. |
| Brussels, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-51 N. | 04-26 E. |
| Buenos Ayres, | La Plata, | Brasil, | South America | 34-35 S. | 58-26 W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bukaraſt, | Walachia, | Turkey, | Europe | 44-26N. | 26-13 E. |
| Britiſh ſea, | between | Brit. & Germ. | Europe | Atlantic | Ocean. |
| Black, or Euxine ſea, | Turkey in | Europe and | Aſia | | |
| Bruges, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-16N. | 03-05 E. |
| Brunſwick, | Low. Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 52-30N. | 10-30 E. |
| Buda, | Lower | Hungary, | Europe | 47-40N. | 19-20 E. |
| Burlington, | Jerſey, | North | America | 40-08N. | 75-00W. |
| Bourbon Iſle | South | Indian Ocean, | Africa | 20-51 S. | 55-25 E. |
| CAbello, (Port), | Terra Firma, | South | America | 10-03N. | 67-27W. |
| CACHAO, | Tonquin, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 21-30N. | 105-00 E. |
| Cadiz, | Andaluſia, | Spain, | Europe | 36-31N. | 6-06W. |
| Caen, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-11N. | 0-16W. |
| Cahors, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-26N. | 1-31 E. |
| Cagliari, | Sardinia, | Italy, | Europe | 39-25N. | 9-38 E. |
| Cairo, | Lower | Egypt, | Africa | 30 02N. | 31-23 E. |
| Calais, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 50-57N. | 1-55 E. |
| Callao, | Peru, | South | America | 12-01N. | 76-53W. |
| Calcutta, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 22-34N. | 88-34 E. |
| Calmar, | Smaland, | Sweden, | Europe | 56-40N. | 16-26 E. |
| Cambray, | Cambreſis, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-10N. | 3-18 E. |
| Cambeltown, | Argyleſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-30N. | 5-40W. |
| Cambridge, | Cambridgeſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-12N. | 0-09 E. |
| Cambridge, | New | England, | N. America | 42-25N. | 71-05W. |
| Canary, N. E. Point, | Canary Iſles, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-13N. | 15-33W. |
| Candia, | Candia Iſland, | Mediterr. Sea, | Europe | 35-18N. | 25-23 E. |
| Canſo Port, | Nova Scotia, | North | America | 45-20N. | 60 50W. |
| Cambodia, | Cambodia, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 13-30N. | 105-00 E. |
| Canterbury, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-16N. | 1-15 E. |
| Canton, | Canton, | China, | Aſia | 23-07N. | 113-07 E. |
| Carleſcroon, | Schonen, | Sweden, | Europe | 56-20N. | 15-31 E. |
| Carthage Ruins, | Tunis, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-30N. | 9-00 E. |
| Carthagena, | Terra Firma, | South | America | 10-26N. | 75-21W. |
| Carthagena, | Murcia, | Spain, | Europe | 37-37N. | 1-03W. |
| Carliſle, | Cumberland, | England, | Europe | 54-47N. | 2-35W. |
| Cardigan, | Cardiganſhire, | Wales, | Europe | 52-10N. | 4-38W. |
| Candy, | Ceylon, | Indian Ocean, | Aſia | 7-54N. | 79-00 E. |
| Caſpian Sea, | Ruſſia, | Tartary, | Aſia | | |
| Caſan, | Caſan, | Siberia, | Aſia | 55-43N. | 49-13 E. |
| Caſſel, | Heſſe Caſſel, | Germany, | Europe | 51-19N. | 9-34 E. |
| Caſtres, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-37N. | 2-19 E. |
| St. Catharine's Iſle, | Atlantic, | Ocean, | South America | 27-35 S. | 49-12W. |
| Cavan, | Cavan, | Ireland, | Europe | 54-51N. | 7-18W. |
| Cayenne, | Cayenne Iſle, | South | America | 4-56N. | 52-10W. |
| Cette, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-23N. | 3-17 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chalons, | Burgundy, | France, | Europe | 46-46N. | 4-56 E. |
| Chandernagore | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 22-51N. | 88-34 E. |
| Charlton, | Isle, | Hudson's Bay, | North America, | 52-03N. | 79-00W. |
| Chartres, | Orleannois, | France, | Europe | 48-26N. | 1-33 E. |
| Cherbourg, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-38N. | 1-33W. |
| Christmas Sound, | Terra del Fuego, | South | America, | 55-21N. | 69-57W. |
| St. Christopher's Isle, | Caribbean | Sea, | N. America, | 17-15N. | 62-38W. |
| Civita Vecchia | Patr. di S. Petro, | Italy, | Europe, | 42-05N. | 11-51 E. |
| Clerke's Isles, | Atlantic, | Ocean, | South America, | 55-05S. | 34-37W. |
| Clermont, | Auvergne, | France, | Europe | 45-46N. | 3-10 E. |
| Colmar, | Alsace, | France, | Europe | 48-04N. | 7-27 E. |
| Cologne, | Elect. of Cologne, | Germany, | Europe | 50-55N. | 7-10 E. |
| Cape Clear, | Irish Sea, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-18N. | 11-10W. |
| —Comorin, | On this side the Ganges | East India, | Asia | 7-56N. | 78-10 E. |
| — Finisterre, | Galicia, | Spain, | Europe | 42-51N. | 9-12W. |
| — St. Vincent, | Algarve, | Portugal, | Europe | 37-02N. | 8-57W. |
| — of Good Hope, | Hottentots, | Caffraria, | Africa | 34-29 S. | 18-28 E. |
| — Florida, | East Florida, | North | America | 24-57N. | 80-30W. |
| — Verd, | | Negroland, | Africa | 14-45N. | 17-28W. |
| — Horn, | Terra del Fuego Island, | South | America | 55-58 S. | 67-21W. |
| Cattegate, | between | Swed. & Den. | Europe, | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Ceuta, | Fez, | Morocco, | Africa | 35-04N. | 6-30W. |
| Chester, | Cheshire, | England, | Europe | 53-15N. | 0-03W. |
| CHARLES-TOWN, | South Carolina | North | America | 32-45N. | 79-12W. |
| COPENHAGEN, | Zealand Isle, | Denmark, | Europe | 55-40N. | 12-40 E. |
| CONSTANTINOPLE, | Romania, | Turkey, | Europe | 41-01N. | 28-58 E. |
| Cork, | Munster, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-53N. | 8-23W. |
| Coventry, | Warwickshire, | England, | Europe | 52-25N. | 1-25W. |
| Constance, | Suabia, | Germany, | Europe | 47-37N. | 9-12 E. |
| Corinth, | Morea, | Turkey, | Europe | 37-30N. | 23-00 E. |
| Cowes, | Isle of Wight, | England, | Europe | 50-46N. | 1-14W. |
| Cracow, | Little Poland, | Poland, | Europe | 50-10N. | 19-55 E. |
| Cremsmunster, | Arch-duchy of Austria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-03N. | 14-12 E. |
| Curassou, | Curassou Isle, | West India, | America | 11-56N. | 68-20W. |
| Cusco, | Peru, | South | America | 12-25 S. | 70-00W. |
| Cummin, | Isle, | North Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 31-40N. | 121-09 E. |
| DAmascus, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-15N. | 37 20 E. |
| Dantzic, | Polish Prussia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-22N. | 18-38 E. |
| Decca, | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 23-30N. | 89-20 E. |
| Delhi, | Delhi, | East India, | Asia | 29-00N. | 76-30 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Delft, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-06N. | 4-05 E. |
| Derbent, | Dagiſtan, | Perſia, | Aſia | 41-41N. | 50-30 E. |
| Dax, | Gaſcony, | France, | Europe | 43-42N. | 0-58W. |
| Dieppe, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-55N. | 0-59 E. |
| Dijon, | Burgundy, | France, | Europe | 47-19N. | 4-57 E. |
| Dilbingen, | Suabia, | Germany, | Europe | 48-30N. | 10-19 E. |
| Dol, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-33N. | 1-41W. |
| Dominique, | Wind. Iſlands, | Weſt India, | America | 15-18N. | 1-22W. |
| Dover, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-07N. | 1-13 E. |
| Dreux, | Orleannois, | France, | Europe | 48-44N. | 1-16 E. |
| Derby, | Derbyſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-58N. | 1-30W. |
| Derry, | Ulſter, | Ireland, | Europe | 54-52N. | 7-40W. |
| Dieu, | Guzerat, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 21-37N. | 69-30 E. |
| DRESDEN, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-00N. | 13-36 E. |
| Dundee, | Forfar, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-26N. | 2-48W. |
| DUBLIN, | Leinſter, | Ireland, | Europe | 53-21N. | 6-01W. |
| Durham, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 54-48N. | 1-25W. |
| Dumbarton, | Dumbartonſh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-44N. | 4-20W. |
| Dungeneſs, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 50-52N. | 1-04 E. |
| Dunkirk, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-02N. | 2-27 E. |
| Dunbar, | Haddington, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 2-25W. |
| Dumfries, | Dumfriesſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-08N. | 3-25W. |
| ENgliſh Channel, | between | Eng. and Fran. | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Eaſtern Ocean, | betw. the N. W. | of N. Am. and | N. E. of Aſia, | N. Pacific Ocean | |
| Epheſus, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Aſia | 38-01N. | 27-30 E. |
| Eaoowe Iſle, | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 21-24 S. | 174-25W. |
| Eaſter Iſle, | Pacific | Ocean, | America | 27-06 S. | 109-41W. |
| Edinburgh, | Edinburghſh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-57N. | 3-07W. |
| Edyſtone, | Eng. Channel, | England, | Europe | 50-08N. | 4-19W. |
| Enebrun, | Dauphiné | France, | Europe | 44-34N. | 6-34 E. |
| Enatum Iſle, | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 20-10 S. | 169-59 E. |
| Elbing, | Pruſſia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-15N. | 20-00 E. |
| Embden, | Weſtphalia, | Germany, | Europe | 53-25N. | 7-10 E. |
| Erramanga Iſle | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 18-46 S. | 169-23 E. |
| Erzerum, | Turcomania, | Turkey, | Aſia | 39-56N. | 42-05 E. |
| Ethiopian Sea, | Coaſt of | Guinea, | Africa | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Euſtatius, | Carib. Sea, | Weſt India, | N. Amer. | 17-29N. | 63-05W. |
| Evreux | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-01N. | 1-13 E. |
| Exeter, | Devonſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-44N. | 3-29W. |
| FAlmouth, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-08N. | 4-57W. |
| Falkirk, | Stirling, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 3-48W. |
| Fez, | Fez, | Morocco, | Africa | 33-30N. | 6-00W. |
| Ferrol, | Galicia, | Spain, | Europe | 43-30N. | 8-40W. |
| Fayal Town, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-32N. | 28-36W. |
| Ferdinand Naronka, | | Braſil, | South America | 3-56 S. | 32-43W. |
| Ferrara, | Ferrareſe, | Italy, | Europe | 44-54N. | 11-41 E. |
| Ferro (Town) | Canaries, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 27-47N. | 17-40W. |
| Florence, | Tuſcany, | Italy, | Europe | 43-46N. | 11-07 E. |
| Flores, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 39-34N. | 30-51W. |
| St. Flour, | Auvergne, | France, | Europe | 45-01N. | 3-10 E. |
| France (Iſle of) | Indian | Ocean, | Africa | 19-09 S. | 57-33 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Francfort on the Main, | Franconia, | Germany, | Europe | 49-55N. | 8-40 E. |
| Frawenburg, | Poliſh | Pruſſia, | Europe | 54-22N. | 20-12 E. |
| Fuego Iſle, | Cape Verd, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 14-56N. | 24-23W. |
| Funchal, | Madeira, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 32-37N. | 17-01W. |
| Furneaux Iſle, | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 17-11 S. | 143-01W. |
| Fort St. David, | Coromandel, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 12-05N. | 80-55 E. |
| GAP, | Dauphiné, | France, | Europe | 44-33N. | 6-09 E. |
| Genes, | Savoy, | Italy, | Europe | 44-25N. | 8-40 E. |
| Geneva, | Geneva, | Switzerland, | Europe | 46-12N. | 6-05 E. |
| St. Georg. Iſle, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-39N. | 27-55W. |
| GENOA, | Genoa, | Italy, | Europe | 44-25N. | 8-30 E. |
| Gibraltar, | Andaluſia, | Spain, | Europe | 36-05N. | 5-17W. |
| St. George To. | Bermudas, | Atlant. Ocean, | N. Amer. | 32-45N. | 63-30W. |
| St. Georg. Fort | Coromandel, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 13-04N. | 80-33 E. |
| Ghent, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-03N. | 3-48 E. |
| Glaſgow, | Lanerkſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-51N. | 4-10W. |
| Goa, | Malabar, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 15-31N. | 73-50 E. |
| Goat Iſle, | Indian | Ocean, | Aſia | 13-55N. | 120-07 E. |
| Gomera Iſle, | Canaries, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-05N. | 17-03W. |
| Good Hope, T. | Hottentots, | Caffrees, | Africa | 33-55 S. | 18-28 E. |
| Goree, | Atlantic | Ocean, | Africa | 14-40N. | 17-20W. |
| Gottenburg, | Gothland, | Sweden, | Europe | 57-42N. | 11-43 E. |
| Göttingen, | Hanover, | Germany, | Europe | 51-31N. | 9-58 E. |
| Granville, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 48-50N. | 1-32W. |
| Gratioſa, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 39-02N. | 27-53W. |
| Gratz, | Stiria, | Germany, | Europe | 47-04N. | 15-29 E. |
| Gravelines, | Fr. Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-59N. | 2-13 E. |
| Gryphiſwald, | Pomerania, | Germany, | Europe | 54-04N. | 13-43 E. |
| Guadaloupe, | Caribbean | Sea, | N. Amer | 15-59N. | 61-54W. |
| Glouceſter, | Glouceſterſh. | England, | Europe | 51-05N. | 2-16W. |
| Gombroon, | Farſiſtan. | Perſia, | Aſia | 27-30N | 74-20 E. |
| Greenock, | Renfrewſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-52N. | 4-22W. |
| Guam, | Ladrone Iſles, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 14-00N. | 140-30 E. |
| Gulf of Bothnia | Coaſt of | Sweden, | Europe | Baltic Sea. | |
| — of Finland, | between | Swed. & Ruſſia, | Europe | Baltic Sea. | |
| — of Venice, | between | Italy & Turk. | Europe | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| — of Ormus, | between | Perſia & Arab. | Aſia | Indian Ocean. | |
| — of Perſia, | between | Perſia & Arab. | Aſia | Indian Ocean. | |
| — of California | between | Calif. & Mexico | N. Amer. | Pacific Ocean. | |
| — of St. Law, | Coaſt of | New Scotland, | N. Amer. | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| — of Mexico, | Coaſt of | Mexico, | N. Amer. | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| HAGUE, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-04N. | 4-22 E. |
| Hamburg | Holſtein, | Germany, | Europe | 53-34N. | 9-55 E. |
| Haſtings, | Suſſex, | England, | Europe | 50-52N. | 0-40 E. |
| Halifax, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 1-52W. |
| HALIFAX, | Nova Scotia, | North | America | 44-40N. | 63-15W. |
| Hanover, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 52-33N. | 9-35 E. |
| Havannah, | Cuba | Iſland, | N. Amer. | 23-11N. | 2-13W. |
| Havre de Grace | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-29N. | 1-10 E. |
| La Heeſe, | D. Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-55N. | 4-50 E. |
| Helleſpont, | Med. & Bl. Sea, | Europe and | Aſia | | |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| St. Helena, Ja. Town, | South | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 15-55 S. | 5-44W. |
| Hernoſand, | W. Bothnia, | Sweden, | Europe | 62-38N. | 17-58E. |
| Hervey's Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-17 S. | 158-43W. |
| Haerlem, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-20N. | 4-10E. |
| Hereford, | Herefordſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-06N. | 2-38W. |
| Hoai-Nghan, | Kian-Nan, | China, | Aſia | 33-34N. | 118-54E. |
| La Hogue Cape | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-44N. | 1-51W. |
| Hood's Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 9-26 S. | 138-47W. |
| Hoogſtraten, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-24N. | 4-52E. |
| Howe's Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-46 S. | 154-01W. |
| Huaheine Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-44 S. | 151-01W. |
| Hull, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 0-12W. |
| Hudſon's Bay, | Coaſt of | Labrador, | N.Amer. | N. Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Jakutſkoi, | Siberia, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 62-01N. | 129-52E. |
| Janeiro Rio, | | Braſil, | S.Amer. | 22-54 S. | 43-38W. |
| Jaſſy, | Moldavia, | Turkey, | Europe | 47-08N. | 27-34E. |
| Java Head, | Java Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 6-49 S. | 106-55E. |
| Jeddo, | Japan Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 36-20N. | 139-00E. |
| Jeruſalem, | Paleſtine, | Turkey, | Aſia | 31-55N. | 35-25E. |
| Immer Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-10 S. | 169-51E. |
| Ingolſtadt, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-45N. | 11-27E. |
| St. John's To. | Antigua, | Leeward Iſles, | N.Amer. | 17-04N. | 62-04E. |
| St. John's To. | Newfoundland | North | America | 47-32N. | 52-21W. |
| St. Joſeph's, | California, | Mexico, | N.Amer. | 23-03N. | 109-37W. |
| Irraname Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-31 S. | 170-26E. |
| Iſlamabad, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 22-20N. | 91-50E. |
| Iſle of Pines, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 22-38 S. | 167-43E. |
| ISPAHAN, | Irac Agem, | Perſia, | Aſia | 32-25N. | 52-55E. |
| Judda, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Aſia | 21-29N. | 49-27E. |
| Juthria, | Siam, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 14-18N. | 100-55E. |
| Inverneſs, | Inverneſsſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 57-33N. | 4-02W. |
| Ivica Iſle, | Mediterr. Sea, | Italy, | Europe | 38-50N. | 1-40E. |

Iſthmus of Suez joins Africa to Aſia.
——— of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.
——— of Panama, joins North and South America.
——— of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Aſia.
Iriſh Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland, Europe, Atlantic Ocean.
Indian Ocean, Coaſt of India, Aſia.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kamtſchatka, | Siberia, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 57-20N. | 163-00E. |
| Kedgere, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 21-48N. | 88-55E. |
| Kelſo, | Roxboroughſ. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38N. | 02-12W. |
| Kilmarnock, | Airſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38N. | 00-30W. |
| Kinſale, | Munſter, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-32N. | 08-20W. |
| KINGSTON, | Jamaica, | Weſt India, | America | 18-15N. | 76-38W. |
| Kiow, | Ukraine, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 50-30N. | 31-12E. |
| Kola. | Lapland, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 68-52N. | 33-13E. |
| Koningſberg, | Pruſſia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-43N. | 21-35E. |
| Lancaſter, | Lancaſhire, | England, | Europe | 54-05N. | 02-55E. |
| Levantſea | Coaſt of | Syria, | Aſia | Mediterranean ſea. | |
| Laguna, | Teneriffe, | Canaries, | A.Ocean | 28-28N. | 16-13W. |
| Land | Alſace, | France, | Europe | 49-11 N. | 08-02E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Landſcroon, | Schonen, | Sweden, | Europe | 55-52N. | 12-51 E. |
| Lauſanne, | Cant. of Vaud, | Switzerland, | Europe | 46-31N. | 06-50 E. |
| Leeds, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-48N. | 01-29W. |
| Leiceſter, | Leiceſterſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-38N. | 01-03W. |
| Leipſic, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-19N. | 12-25 E. |
| Lepers' Iſland, | S. Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 15-23 S. | 168-03 E. |
| Leſkard, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-26N. | 04-36W. |
| Leſparre, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 45-18N. | 00-52W. |
| Leyden, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-10N. | 04-32 E. |
| Leith, | Edinburghſh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 03-00W. |
| Lahor, | Lahor, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 32-40N. | 75-30 E. |
| Linlithgow, | Linlithgowſh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-56N. | 03-30W. |
| Lincoln, | Lincolnſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-15N. | 00-27W. |
| Lima, | Peru, | South | America | 12-01 S. | 76-44W. |
| Liege, | Biſh. of Liege, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-37N. | 05-40 E. |
| Limoges, | Limoges, | France, | Europe | 45-49N. | 01-20 E. |
| Lintz, | Auſtria, | Germany, | Europe | 41-16N. | 13-57 E. |
| Liſle, | Fren. Flanders | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-37N. | 03-09 E. |
| Liſbon, | Eſtremadura, | Portugal, | Europe | 38-42N. | 09-04W. |
| Lizard Point, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 49-57N. | 05-10W. |
| Louiſbourg, | C. Breton Iſle, | North | America | 45-53N. | 59-48W. |
| Limerick, | Limerickſhire, | Ireland, | Europe | 52-35N. | 08-48W. |
| Litchfield, | Staffordſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-43N. | 01-04W. |
| Loretto, | Pope's Territ. | Italy, | Europe | 43-15N. | 14-15 E. |
| LONDON, | Middleſex, | England, | Europe | 51-31N. | 1ſt Merid. |
| Londonderry, | Londonderry, | Ireland, | Europe | 50-00N. | 07-40W. |
| Louveau, | Siam, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 12-42N. | 100-56 E. |
| Louvain, | Auſtr. Brabant | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-53N. | 04-49 E. |
| Lubec, | Holſtein, | Germany, | Europe | 54-00N. | 11 40 E. |
| St. Lucia Iſle, | Windward Iſles | Weſt Indies, | N. Amer. | 13-24N. | 60-46W. |
| Lunden, | Gothland, | Sweden, | Europe | 55-41N. | 13-26 E. |
| Luneville, | Lorrain, | France, | Europe | 48-35N. | 06-35 E. |
| Luxemburg, | Luxemburg, | Netherlands, | Europe | 49-37N. | 06-16 E. |
| Lyons, | Lyons, | France, | Europe | 45-45N. | 04-54 E. |
| Macao, | Canton, | China, | Aſia | 22-12N. | 113-51 E. |
| Macaſſar, | Celebes Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 05-09 S. | 119-53 E. |
| Madeira, Funchal, | Atlantic | Ocean, | Africa | 32-37N. | 17-01W. |
| Madras, | Coromandel, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 13-04N. | 80-33 E. |
| MADRID, | New Caſtile, | Spain, | Europe | 40-25N. | 03-20 E. |
| Magdalena Iſl. | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 10-25 S. | 138-44W. |
| Mahon, Fort, | Minorca, | Mediterr. ſea, | Europe | 39-50N. | 03-53 E. |
| Majorca, | Iſle, | Mediterr. ſea, | Europe | 39-35N. | 02-31 E. |
| Malacca, | Malacca, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 02-12N. | 102-10 E. |
| Malines, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-01N. | 04-33 E. |
| Mallicola Iſles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-15N. | 167-44 E. |
| St. Maloes, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-38N. | 01-56W. |
| Malta Iſle, | Mediterranean | Sea, | Africa | 35-54N. | 14-33 E. |
| Manilla, | Luconia Philip. Iſles, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 14-36N. | 120-58 E. |
| MANTUA, | Mantua, | Italy, | Europe | 45-10N. | 10-47 E. |
| Mariegalante Iſle, | Atlantic | Ocean, | S. Amer. | 15-55N. | 61-06W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Marſeilles, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-17N. | 05-27 E. |
| St. Martha, | St. Martha, | Terra Firma, | America | 11-26N. | 75-59W. |
| St. Martin's Iſle, | Caribbean Iſl. | Weſt India, | America | 18-04N. | 62-57W. |
| Martinico Iſle, | Caribbean Iſl. | Weſt India, | America | 14-44N. | 61-05W. |
| St. Mary's Iſle, | Scilly Iſles, | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 49-57N. | 06-38W. |
| St. Mary's To. | Azores, | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 36-56N. | 25-06W. |
| Maſkelyne Iſles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-32 S. | 168-04 E. |
| Mauritius, | Indian | Ocean, | Africa | 20-09 S. | 57-34 E. |
| Maurua Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-25 S. | 152-37 E. |
| Mayence, | Lower Rhine, | Germany, | Europe | 49-54N. | 08-25 E. |
| Mayo Iſle, | Cape Verd, | Atlantic Ocean | Africa | 15-10N. | 23-00W. |
| Meaux, | Champagne, | France, | Europe | 48-57N. | 02-57 E. |
| Medina, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Aſia | 25-00N. | 39-33 E. |
| Mecca, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Aſia | 21-45N. | 41-00 E. |
| Mediterr. Sea, | between | Europe and | Africa | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Mequinez, | Fez, | Barbary, | Africa | 34-30N. | 06-00 E. |
| MESSINA, | Sicily Iſland, | Italy, | Europe | 38-30N. | 15-40 E. |
| Mergui, | Siam, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 12-12N. | 98-13 E. |
| Mexico, | Mexico, | North | America | 19-54N. | 100-00W. |
| Milford Haven, | Pembrokeſh. | Wales, | Europe | 51-43N. | 05-15W. |
| Mitea Iſles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 17-52 S. | 48-01 W. |
| St. Michael's Iſle, | Azores | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 37-47N. | 25-37W. |
| Middleburg Iſl. | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 21-20 S. | 174-29W. |
| MILAN, | Milaneſe, | Italy, | Europe | 45-25N. | 09-30 E. |
| Mocha, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Aſia | 13-40N. | 43-50 E. |
| MODENA, | Modena, | Italy, | Europe | 44-34N. | 11-17 E. |
| Montréal, | Canada, | North | America | 45-35N. | 73-11W. |
| Montpelier, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-36N. | 03-37 E. |
| Montroſe, | Forfar, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-34N. | 0-20W. |
| Montague Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 17-26 S. | 168-36 E. |
| Montſerrat Iſl. | Caribbean Iſles, | Weſt India, | America | 16-47N. | 62-12W. |
| MOROCCO, | Morocco, | Barbary, | Africa | 30-32N. | 06-10W. |
| Moscow, | Moſcow, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 55-45N. | 37-50 E. |
| Munich, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-09N. | 11-35 E. |
| Munſter, | Weſtphalia, | Germany, | Europe | 52-00N. | 07-16 E. |
| Narva, | Livonia, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 59-00N. | 27-35 E. |
| Nanci, | Lorrain, | France, | Europe | 48-41N. | 06-10 E. |
| Nanking, | Kiangan, | China, | Aſia | 32-10N. | 181-30 E. |
| Namur, | Namur, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-28N. | 04-49 E. |
| Nangaſachi, | Japan, | N. Pacific Oc. | Aſia | 32-32N. | 182-51 E. |
| Naples, | Naples, | Italy, | Europe | 40-50N. | 14-18 E. |
| Nantes, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 47-13N. | 01-28W. |
| Nice, | Piedmont, | Italy, | Europe | 43-41N. | 07-22 E. |
| Newport, | Rhode Iſland, | North | America | 41-35N. | 71-06W. |
| Nieuport, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-07N. | 02-50 E. |
| New York, | New York, | North | America | 40-40N. | 74-00W. |
| Nineveh, | Curdiſtan, | Turkey, | Aſia | 36-00N. | 45-00 E. |
| St. Nich. Mole, | Hiſpaniola, | Weſt India, | America | 19-49N. | 73-24W. |
| Newcaſtle, | Northumberl. | England, | Europe | 55-03N. | 01-24W. |
| Ningpo, | Chekiang, | China, | Aſia | 29-57N. | 120-23 E. |
| Norfolk Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 29-01 S. | 168-15 E. |
| Noriton, | Pennſylvania, | North | America | 40-09N. | 75-18W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North Cape, | Wardhus, | Lapland, | Europe | 71-10N. | 26-02 E. |
| Nottingham, | Nottinghamſh. | England, | Europe | 53-00N. | 01-06W. |
| Northampton, | Northampt.ſh. | England, | Europe | 52-15N. | 00-55W. |
| Norwich, | Norfolk, | England, | Europe | 52-40N. | 01-25 E. |
| Nuremberg, | Franconia, | Germany, | Europe | 49-27N. | 11-12 E. |
| Olmutz, | Moravia, | Bohemia, | Europe | 49-30N. | 16-45 E. |
| Ochotſkoi, | Siberia, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 59-20N. | 143-17 E. |
| Ohevahoa Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 09-40 S. | 138-50W. |
| Ohitahoo Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 09-55 S. | 139-01W. |
| Oleron Iſle, | Saintonge, | France, | Europe | 46-02N. | 01-20W. |
| Olympia, | Greece, | Turkey, | Europe | 37-30N. | 22-00 E. |
| Olinde, | Braſil, | South | America | 08-13 S. | 35-00W. |
| Onateayo Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 09-58 S. | 138-40W. |
| Oporto, | Douro, | Portugal, | Europe | 41-10N. | 08-22W. |
| Orenburg, | Tartary, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 51-46N. | 55-14 E. |
| Orleans, | Orleannois, | France, | Europe | 47-54N. | 01-59 E. |
| Orleans (New) | Louiſiana, | North | America | 29-57N. | 89-53W. |
| Orotava, | Teneriffe, | Atlantic Ocean, | Africa | 28-23N. | 16-19W. |
| Ormus, | Ormicos Iſle, | Perſia, | Aſia | 26-50N. | 57-00 E. |
| Orſk, | Tartary, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 51-12N. | 58-37 E. |
| Oran, | Algiers, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-30N. | 00-05 E. |
| Oſnaburg Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 17-52 S. | 148-01 E. |
| Oſtend, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-13N. | 03-00 E. |
| Oxford Obſervatory, | Oxfordſhire, | England, | Europe | 51-45N. | 01-10W. |
| St. Omer's, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-44N. | 02-19 E. |
| L'Orient (Port) | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 47-45N. | 03-20W. |
| Pacific or Or. Ocean | between | Aſia and | America | | |
| Padua, | Paduano, | Italy, | Europe | 45-22N. | 12-00 E. |
| Paiſley, | Renfrewſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-48N. | 04-08W. |
| Palermo, | Sicily Iſle, | Italy, | Europe | 38-30N. | 13-43 E. |
| Palmyra, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 33-00N. | 39-00 E. |
| Panama, | Darien, | Terra Firma, | S. Amer. | 08-47N. | 80-16W. |
| Palliſer's Iſles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 15-38 S. | 146-25W. |
| Palma Iſle, | Canaries, | Atlantic Ocean, | Africa | 28-36N. | 17-45W. |
| Palmerſton's I. | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 18-00 S. | 162-52W. |
| Paoom Iſle | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-30 S. | 168-33 E. |
| Paris Obſervatory, | Iſle of France, | France, | Europe | 48-50N. | 2-25 E. |
| Patrixfiord, | Iceland, | N.Atl.Ocean, | Europe | 65-35N. | 14-05W. |
| Parma, | Parmeſan, | Italy, | Europe | 44-45N. | 10-51 E. |
| Patna, | Bengal, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 25-45N. | 83-00 E. |
| Pau, | Bearn, | France, | Europe | 45-15N. | 0-04W. |
| St. Paul's Iſle, | South | Indian Ocean, | Africa | 37-51 S. | 77-53E. |
| Pegu, | Pegu, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 17-00N. | 97-00 E. |
| Peking, | Petchi-li, | China, | Aſia | 39-54N. | 116-29 E. |
| St. Peter's Fort | Martinico, | W. India, | N.Amer. | 14-44N. | 61-16W. |
| Pembroke, | Pembrokeſh. | Wales, | Europe | 51-45N. | 4-50W. |
| Penzance, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-08N. | 6-00W. |
| Pensacola, | Weſt Florida, | North | America | 30-22N. | 87-20W. |
| Perigueux, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 45-11N. | 0-48 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Perinaldi, | Genoa, | Italy, | Europe | 43-53N. | 7-45 E. |
| Perth, | Perthſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-22N. | 3-12W. |
| Perth-amboy, | New York, | North | America | 40-30N. | 74-20W. |
| St. Peter's Iſle, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | America | 46-46N. | 56-12W. |
| Perſepolis, | Irac Agem, | Perſia, | Aſia | 30-30N. | 54-00 E. |
| Petropawloſkoi, | Kamtſchatka, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 53-01N. | 158-40 E. |
| PETERSBURG, | Ingria, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 59-56N. | 30-24 E. |
| Philadelphia, | Pennſylvania, | North | America | 39-56N. | 75-09W. |
| St. Philip's Fort, | Minorca, | Mediterr. Sea, | Europe | 39-50N. | 3-53 E. |
| Pickerſgill Iſle, | South | Atlant. Ocean, | America | 54-42 S. | 36-53W. |
| Pico, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-28N. | 28-21W. |
| Pines, Iſle of, | N. Caledonia, | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 22-38 S. | 167-43 E. |
| Piſa, | Tuſcany, | Italy, | Europe | 43-43N. | 10-17 E. |
| Placentia, | Newfoundland Iſle, | North | America | 47-26N. | 55-00W. |
| Plymouth, | Devonſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-22N. | 4-10W. |
| Plymouth, | New England, | North | America | 41-48N. | 70-25W. |
| Pollingen, | Suabia, | Germany, | Europe | 47-48N. | 10-48 E. |
| Pondicherry, | Coromandel, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 11-41N. | 79-57 E. |
| Ponoi, | Lapland, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 67-06N. | 30-28 E. |
| Porto Bello, | Terra Firma, | South | America | 9-33N. | 79-45W. |
| Porto Santo Iſle, | Madeira, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 32-51N. | 16-20W. |
| Port Royal, | Jamaica, | Weſt India, | America | 18-00N. | 76-40W. |
| Port Royal, | Martinico, | Weſt India, | America | 14-35N. | 61-04W. |
| Portſmouth Town, | Hampſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-47N. | 01-01W. |
| — Academy, | Hampſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-48N. | 01-01W. |
| Portſmouth, | New England, | North | America | 53-10N. | 70-20W. |
| Portland Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 39-25 S. | 178-17 E. |
| Portland Iſle, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 63-22N. | 18-49W. |
| Prague, | | Bohemia, | Europe | 50-04N. | 14-50 E. |
| Prince of Wales Fort, | New N. Wales, | North | America | 58-47N. | 94-02W. |
| Potoſi, | Peru, | South | America | 21-00 S. | 77-00W. |
| Providence, | New England, | North | America | 41-50N. | 71-21W. |
| Preſton, | Lancaſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 2-50W. |
| Preſburg, | Upper | Hungary, | Europe | 48-20N. | 17-30W. |
| Pulo Candor Iſle, | Indian Ocean, | Eaſt Indies, | Aſia | 28-40N. | 107-25 E. |
| Pulo Timor Iſle, | Gulf of Siam, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 3-00N. | 104-30 E. |
| Pyleſtaart Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 22-23 S. | 175-26W. |
| QUebec, | Canada, | North | America | 46-55N. | 69-48W. |
| St. Quintin, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 49-50N. | 3-22 E. |
| Quito, | Peru, | South | America | 0-13 S. | 77-50W. |
| Queen Charlotte's Iſles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 10-11 S. | 164-35 E. |
| RAmhead, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-18N. | 4-15W. |
| Raguſa, | Dalmatia, | Venice, | Europe | 42-45N. | 18-25 E. |
| Ratiſbon, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-56N. | 12-05 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ré Isle, | Aunis, | France, | Europe | 46-14 N. | 1-20W. |
| Recif, | Brasil, | South | America | 8-10 S. | 35-30W. |
| Rennes, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-06N. | 1-36W. |
| Resolution Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 17-23 S. | 141-40W. |
| Rheims, | Champagne, | France, | Europe | 49-14N. | 4-07 E. |
| Rhodes, | Rhodes Island, | Levant sea, | Asia | 36-20N. | 28-00 E. |
| Riga, | Livonia, | Russia, | Europe | 56-55N. | 24-00 E. |
| Rimini, | Romagna, | Italy, | Europe | 44-03N. | 12-39 E. |
| Rochelle, | Aunis, | France, | Europe | 46-09N. | 1-04W. |
| Rochfort, | Saintonge, | France, | Europe | 46-02N. | 0-53W. |
| Rock of Lisbon, | Mouth of Tagus river, | Portugal, | Europe | 38-45N. | 9-30W. |
| Rodez, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-21N. | 2-39 E. |
| Rodrigues Isle, | South | Indian Ocean, | Africa | 10-40N. | 63-15 E. |
| Rome, (St. Peter's) | Pope's Territory, | Italy, | Europe | 41-53N. | 12-34 E. |
| Rotterdam | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-56N. | 4-33 E. |
| Rotterdam Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 20-16N. | 174-24W. |
| Rouen, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-26N. | 1-00W. |
| St. Augustin, | East Florida, | North | America | 29-45N. | 81-12W. |
| — Domingo, | Carib. sea, | West India, | America | 18-20N. | 70-00W. |
| — Jago, | Chili, | South | America | 34-00 S. | 77-00W. |
| — Salvador, | Brasil, | South | America | 11-58 S. | 38-00W. |
| Saba Isle, | Carib. sea, | West India, | America | 17-39N. | 63-12W. |
| Sagan, | Silesia, | Germany, | Europe | 51-42N. | 15-27 E. |
| Sall Isle, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 16-38N. | 22-51W. |
| Salonichi, | Macedonia, | Turkey, | Europe | 40-41N. | 23-13 E. |
| Salvage Isles, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 30-00N. | 15-49W. |
| Samana, | Hispaniola, | West India, | America | 19-15N. | 69-11W. |
| Samarcand, | Usbec | Tartary, | Asia | 40-40N. | 69-00 E. |
| Salisbury, | Wiltshire, | England, | Europe | 51-00N. | 1-45W. |
| Santa Cruz, | Teneriffe, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-27N. | 16-11W. |
| Sandwich Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 17-41 S. | 168-38 E. |
| Santa Fé, | New Mexico, | North | America | 36-00 N. | 105-00W. |
| Savannah, | Georgia, | North | America | 31-55N. | 80-20W. |
| Saunders's Isle, | South Georgia, | S. Atlantic Ocean, | S. America | 58-00 S. | 26-53W. |
| Savage Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-02 S. | 169-25W. |
| Sayd, or Thebes, | Upper | Egypt, | Africa | 27-00N. | 32-20 E. |
| Samaria Ruins, | Holy Land, | Turkey, | Asia | 32-40N. | 38-00 E. |
| St. George's Channel, | between | England and Ireland, | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Scarborough, | Yorkshire, | England, | Europe | 54-18N. | 0-10W. |
| Scone, | Perthshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-24N. | 3-10W. |
| Schwezingen, | Lower Rhine, | Germany, | Europe | 49-23N. | 8-45 E. |
| Sea of Asoph, | Little Tartary, | Europe and | Asia | | |
| — Marmora, | Turkey in | Europe and | Asia | Black Sea | |
| — Ochotsk, | between | Siberia & Kamptschatka, | Asia, N. Pacif. Ocean. | | |
| — Yellow, | betw. Eastern | Tartary, China, and Corea, | N. Pacif. Ocean. | | |
| Sedan, | Champagne, | France, | Europe | 49-44N. | 5-02 E. |
| Senegal, | | Negroland, | Africa | 15-53N. | 16-26W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Shepherd's Iſles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-58 S. | 168-47 E. |
| Siam, | Siam, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 14-18N. | 100-55 E. |
| Si-gham-fu, | Chenſi, | China, | Aſia | 34-16N. | 108-48 E. |
| Siſteron, | Dauphiny, | France, | Europe | 44-11N. | 6-01 W. |
| Shrewſbury, | Shropſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-43N. | 2-46W. |
| Shields (South) | Durham, | England, | Europe | 55-02N. | 1-15 E. |
| Sheerneſs, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-25N. | 0-50 E. |
| Seville, | Andaluſia, | Spain, | Europe | 37-15N. | 6-05W. |
| Sidon, | Holy Land, | Turkey, | Aſia | 33-33N. | 36-15 E. |
| Smyrna, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Aſia | 38-28N. | 27-24 E. |
| Southampton, | Hampſhire, | England, | Europe | 50-55N. | 1-25W. |
| Sombavera Iſles, | Carib. Sea, | Weſt India, | N. America | 18-38N. | 63-32W. |
| Soolo Iſle, | Philip. Iſles, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 5-57N. | 121-20 E. |
| Spa, | Liege, | Germany, | Europe | 50-30N. | 5-40 E. |
| Sound, | between | Denmark and Sweden | Europe | Baltic Sea. | |
| Stafford, | Staffordſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-50N. | 2-00W. |
| Stirling, | Stirlingſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-10N. | 3-50W. |
| Stralſund, | Pomerania, | Germany, | Europe | 54-23N. | 13-22 E. |
| Straſburgh, | Alſace, | France, | Europe | 48-34N. | 7-46 E. |
| Stockholm, | Upland, | Sweden, | Europe | 59-20N. | 18-08 E. |

Straits of Dover, between England and France, Engliſh Channel.
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Aſia, Red Sea.
Straits of Ormus, between Perſia and Arabia, Perſian Gulf.
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Aſia, Indian Ocean.
Straits of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego, and Patagonia, South America.
Straits of Le Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.
Straits of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Ruſſia, Aſia.
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Aſia.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Straumneſs, | Iceland, | N. Atlantic Ocean, | Europe | 65-39N. | 24-24W. |
| Suez, | Suez, | Egypt, | Africa | 29-50N. | 33-27 E. |
| Sunderland, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 54-55N. | 1-10W. |
| Surinam, | Surinam, | South | America | 6-00N. | 55-30W. |
| Sultz, | Lorrain, | France, | Europe | 47-53N. | 7-09W. |
| Surat, | Guzerat, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 21-10N. | 72-27 E. |
| Syracuſe, | Sicily Iſle, | Italy, | Europe | 36-58N. | 5-05 E. |
| TAble Iſland, | New Hebrides, | South Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 15-38 S. | 167-12 E. |
| Tanna, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-32 S. | 169-46 E. |
| Tanjour, | Tanjour, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 11-27N. | 79-07 E. |
| Tauris, | Aderbeitzan, | Perſia, | Aſia | 38-20N. | 46-30 E. |
| Taoukaa Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 14-30 S. | 145-04W. |
| Temontengis, | Soloo, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 5-57N. | 120-58 E. |
| Teneriffe Peak, | Canaries, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-12N. | 16-24W. |
| Tercera, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-45N. | 27-01W. |
| St. Thomas's Iſle, | Virgin Iſles, | Weſt India, | America | 18-21N. | 64-26W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Timor, S. W. Point, | | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 10-23 S. | 124-04 E. |
| Timorland, S. Point, | | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 8-15 S. | 131-59 E. |
| Thorn, | Regal Pruſſia, | Poland, | Europe | 52-56N. | 19-00W. |
| Tetuan, | Fez, | Barbary, | Africa | 35-40N. | 5-18W. |
| Teflis, | Georgia, | Perſia, | Aſia | 43-30N. | 47-00 E. |
| Tobolſki, | Siberia, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 58-12N. | 68-17 E. |
| Tomſk, | Siberia, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 56-29N. | 85-04 E. |
| Toulon, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-07N. | 6-01 E. |
| Toledo, | New Caſtile, | Spain, | Europe | 39-50N. | 3-25 E. |
| Tonga Tabu Iſle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 21-09 S. | 174-41W. |
| Trapeſond, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Aſia | 41-50N. | 40-30 E. |
| Trent, | Trent, | Germany, | Europe | 46-05N. | 11-02 E. |
| Troy Ruins, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Aſia | 39-30N. | 26-30 E. |
| Tornea, | Bothnia, | Sweden, | Europe | 65-50N. | 24-17 E. |
| Tripoli, | Tripoli | Barbary, | Africa | 32-53N. | 13-12 E. |
| Tripoli, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 34-30N. | 36-15 E. |
| Tunis, | Tunis, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-47N. | 10-00 E. |
| Turin, | Piedmont, | Italy, | Europe | 45-05N. | 7-45 E. |
| Tyre, | Paleſtine, | Turkey, | Aſia | 32-32N. | 36-00 E. |
| Turtle Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 19-48 S. | 178-02W. |
| Tyrnaw, | Trentſchin, | Hungary, | Europe | 48-23N. | 17-38 E. |
| ULietea, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-45 S. | 151-26W. |
| Upſal, | Upland, | Sweden, | Europe | 59-51N. | 17-47 E. |
| Uraniberg, | Huen Iſle, | Denmark, | Europe | 55-54N. | 12-57 E. |
| Uſhant Iſle, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-28N. | 4-59W. |
| Utrecht, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-07N. | 5-00 E. |
| Venice, | Venice, | Italy, | Europe | 45-26N. | 11-59 E. |
| Vera Cruz, | Mexico, | North | America | 19-12N. | 97-25W. |
| Verona, | Veroneſe, | Italy, | Europe | 45-26N. | 11-23 E. |
| Verſailles, | Iſle of France, | France, | Europe | 48-48N. | 2-12 E. |
| VIENNA (Ob.) | Auſtria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-12N. | 16-22 E. |
| Vigo, | Galicia, | Spain, | Europe | 42-14N. | 8-23W. |
| Vintimiglia, | Genoa, | Italy, | Europe | 43-53N. | 7-42 E. |
| Virgin Gorda, | Virgin Iſles, | Weſt India, | America | 18-18N. | 63-59W. |
| WUrtzburg, | Franconia, | Germany, | Europe | 49-46N. | 10-18 E. |
| Wakefield, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-41N. | 1-28W. |
| Pr. of Wales Fort, | New N. Wales | North | America | 58-47N. | 94-02W. |
| Wardhus, | Norwegian Lapland, | Lapland | Europe | 70-22N. | 31-11 E. |
| Warſaw, | Maſſovia, | Poland, | Europe | 52-14N. | 21-05 E. |
| Weſtman Iſles, | North | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 63-20N. | 20-22W. |
| Whitſuntide Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 15-44 S. | 168-25 E. |
| Warwick, | Warwickſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-18N. | 1-32W. |
| Waterford, | Munſter, | Ireland, | Europe | 52-12N. | 7-16W. |
| Whitehaven, | Cumberland, | England, | Europe | 54-38N. | 3-36W. |
| Williamſburg, | Virginia, | North | America | 37-12N. | 76-48W. |
| Wells, | Somerſetſhire, | England, | Europe | 51-12N. | 2-40W. |
| Wincheſter, | Hampſhire, | England, | Europe | 51-06N. | 1-15W. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Worms, | Lower Rhine, | Germany, | Europe | 49-38N. | 8-05 E. |
| Worceſter, | Worceſterſhire, | England, | Europe | 52-09N. | 1-55W. |
| Willes's Iſles, | South Georgia, | Atlant. Ocean, | America | 54-00 S. | 38-24W. |
| Wilna, | Lithuania, | Poland, | Europe | 54-41N. | 25-32 E. |
| Wittenburg, | Upper Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-49N. | 12-46 E. |
| Wologda, | Wologda, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 59-19N. | 41-50 E. |
| Woſlak, | | Ruſſia, | Europe | 61-15N. | 42-20 E. |
| YArmouth, | Norfolk, | England, | Europe | 52-45N. | 1-48 E. |
| York, | Yorkſhire, | England, | Europe | 53-59N. | 1-01W. |
| Yorminſter, | Terra del Fuego, | South | America | 55-26N. | 70-03W. |

Greenwich Obſerv. Kent, England, Europe, 51° 28′ 40″ N. 0° 5′ 37″ E. of St. Paul's, London.

A

# MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE,

The moſt COPIOUS and AUTHENTIC that ever was publiſhed, of the preſent State of the REAL and IMAGINARY MONIES of the World.

Divided into four Parts, viz.

## EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA;

Which are ſubdivided into fifty-five Parts, containing the Names of the moſt capital places, the Species whereof are inſerted, ſhewing how the Monies are reckoned by the reſpective Nations; and the Figures ſtanding againſt the Denomination of each foreign Piece give the Engliſh intrinſic Value thereof, according to the beſt Aſſays made at the Mint of the TOWER of LONDON.

## EXPLANATION

By real Money is underſtood an effective Specie, repreſenting in itſelf the Value denominated thereby, as a GUINEA, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made uſe of in keeping Accounts, ſignifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be repreſented but by ſeveral other Pieces, as a Pound Sterling, &c.

All fractions in the Value Engliſh are parts of a Penny.

= This Mark ſignifies, *is*, *make*, or *equal to*.

Note, for all the Spaniſh, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Daniſh Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the Weſt Indies, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

## ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

*London, Briſtol, Liverpool, &c.*
*Edinburgh, Glaſgow, Aberdeen, &c.*

*Europe, Northern Parts.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Farthing | = | —— | — | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 2 Farthings | = | a Halfpenny | — | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 2 Halfpence | = | a Penny | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Pence | = | a Groat | — | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 6 Pence | = | a Half Shilling | — | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 12 Pence | = | a Shilling | — | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 5 Shillings | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| 20 Shillings | = | a * Pound Sterling | — | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 21 Shillings | = | a Guinea | — | 1 | 1 | 0 |

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

## IRELAND.

*Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Farthing | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/4 |
| 2 Farthings | = | a Halfpenny | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 2 Halfpence | = | * a Penny | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/12 |
| 6½ Pence | = | a Half Shilling | - | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 12 Pence | = | * a Shilling Iriſh | | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3/40 |
| 13 Pence | = | a Shilling | — | 0 | 0 | 11 | |
| 65 Pence | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 20 Shillings | = | * a Pound Iriſh | | 0 | 18 | 5 | 1/2 |
| 22¾ Shillings | = | a Guinea | — | 1 | 1 | 0 | |

## FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

*Ghent, Oſtend, &c. Antwerp, Bruſſels, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Pening | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/168 |
| 4 Peningens | = | an Urche | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/42 |
| 8 Peningens | = | * a Grote | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/24 |
| 2 Grotes | = | a Petard | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/12 |
| 6 Petards | = | * a Scalin | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1/2 |
| 7 Petards | = | a Scalin | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | 1/2 |
| 40 Grotes | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 17½ Scalins | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 3 | |
| 240 Grotes | = | * a Pound Flem. | — | 0 | 9 | 0 | |

## HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

*Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Fluſhing, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * Pening | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/168 |
| 8 Peningens | = | * a Grote | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/21 |
| 2 Grotes | = | a Stiver | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/10 |
| 6 Stivers | = | a Scalin | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | 1/10 |
| 20 Stivers | = | a Guilder | — | 0 | 1 | 9 | |
| 2 Florins 10 Stivers | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 60 Stivers | = | a Dry Guilder | — | 0 | 5 | 4 | 2/3 |
| 3 Florins 3 Stivers | = | a Silver Ducatoon | | 0 | 5 | 8 | 2/5 |
| 6 Guilders | = | * a Pound Flem. | | 0 | 10 | 6 | |
| 20 Florins | = | a Gold Ducat, or Ducatoon | — | 1 | 16 | 0 | |
| 15 Florins | = | a Ducatoon, another ſort, called a Sovereign | | 1 | 7 | 0 | |

## HAMBURG, *Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.*

Germany.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Tryling | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/288 |
| 2 Trylings | = | * a Sexling | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/64 |
| 2 Sexlings | = | a Fenning | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/32 |
| 12 Fenings | = | a Shilling Lub. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/8 |
| 16 Shillings | = | * a Marc | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 2 Marcs | = | a Sletch-dollar | | 0 | 3 | 0 | |
| 3 Marcs | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 4 Marcs | = | a Silver ducatoon | | 0 | 6 | 0 | |
| 120 Shillings | = | * a Pound Flem. | | 0 | 11 | 3 | |

## HANOVER, *Lunenburg, Zell, &c.*

| | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Fening | = | ——— | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/48 |
| 3 Fenings | = | a Dreyer — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/16 |
| 8 Fenings | = | a Marien — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/16 |
| 12 Fenings | = | a Groſh — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3/4 |
| 8 Groſhen | = | a Half Gulden | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 16 Groſhen | = | a Gulden — | 0 | 1 | 4 | |
| 24 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 32 Groſhen | = | a Double Gulden | 0 | 4 | 8 | |
| 4 Guldens | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 2 | |

## SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

*Dreſden, Leipſic, &c. Wiſmar, Keil, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * An Heller | = | ——— | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/96 |
| 2 Hellers | = | a Fening — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/48 |
| 6 Hellers | = | a Dreyer — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/16 |
| 16 Hellers | = | a Marien — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/16 |
| 12 Fenings | = | a Groſh — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3/4 |
| 16 Groſhen | = | a Gould — | 0 | 2 | 4 | |
| 24 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 2 Groſhen | = | a Specie Dollar | 0 | 4 | 8 | |
| 4 Goulds | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

## BRANDENBURG AND POMERANIA.

*Berlin, Potſdam, &c. Stetin, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Denier | = | ——— | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2/27 |
| 9 Deniers | = | a Polchen — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/36 |
| 18 Deniers | = | a Groſh — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/16 |
| 3 Polchens | = | an Abraſs — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/16 |
| 20 Groſhen | = | * a Marc — | 0 | 0 | 9 | 1/3 |
| 30 Groſhen | = | a Florin — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 90 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 108 Groſhen | = | an Albertus — | 0 | 4 | 2 | |
| 8 Florins | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

## COLOGN, *Mentz, Triers, Liege, Munich, Munſter, Paderborn, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Dute | = | ——— | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/96 |
| 3 Dutes | = | a Cruitzer — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2/96 |
| 2 Cruitzers | = | an Alb — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 21/96 |
| 8 Dutes | = | a Stiver — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/12 |
| 3 Stivers | = | a Plapert — | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1/4 |
| 4 Plaperts | = | a Copſtuck — | 0 | 0 | 8 | 4/5 |
| 4 Stivers | = | a Guilder — | 0 | 2 | 4 | |
| 2 Guilders | = | a Hard Dollar | 0 | 4 | 8 | |
| 4 Guilders | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

GERMANY.

## BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.

*Prague, Breslau, Presburgh, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/85 |
| 2 Fenings | = | a Dreyer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/38 |
| 3 Fenings | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/228 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/114 |
| 2 Cruitzers | = | a White Groſh | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14/228 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 4 | |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 2 Goulds | = | a Hard Dollar | | 0 | 4 | 8 | |
| 4 Goulds | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

## AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

*Vienna, Trieſte, &c. Augſburg, Blenheim, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/85 |
| 2 Fenings | = | a Dreyer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/38 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/228 |
| 14 Fenings | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 19/456 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/19 |
| 15 Batzen | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 4 | |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 2 Florins | = | a Specie-dollar | | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 60 Batzen | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

## FRANCONIA, *Franckfort, Nuremburg, Dettingen, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/80 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/160 |
| 3 Cruitzers | = | a Keyſer Groſh | | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/8 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 13/160 |
| 15 Cruitzers | = | an Ort Gold | | 0 | 0 | 7 | |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 4 | |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 2 Goulds | = | a Hard Dollar | | 0 | 4 | 8 | |
| 240 Cruitzers | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

## POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

*Cracow, Warſaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningsberg, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Shelon | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/45 |
| 3 Shelons | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7/15 |
| 5 Groſhen | = | a Couſtic | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| 3 Couſtics | = | a Tinſe | — | 0 | 0 | 7 | |
| 18 Groſhen | = | an Ort | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | 2/3 |
| 30 Groſhen | = | a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 90 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 8 Florins | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |
| 5 Rix-dollars | = | a Frederic d'Or | — | 0 | 17 | 6 | |

## LIVONIA. *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Blacken | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{16}$ |
| 6 Blackens | = | a Groſh | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{12}$ |
| 9 Blackens | = | a Vording | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Groſhen | = | a Whiten | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{1}\frac{4}{2}$ |
| 6 Groſhen | = | a Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | $\frac{4}{5}$ |
| 30 Groſhen | = | a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 90 Groſhen | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 108 Groſhen | = | an Albertus | — | 0 | 4 | 2 | $\frac{6}{15}$ |
| 64 Whitens | = | a Copper-plate Dollar | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |

## DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

*Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Skilling | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{9}{16}$ |
| 6 Skillings | = | a Duggen | — | 0 | 0 | 3 | $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| 16 Skillings | = | * a Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 9 | |
| 20 Skillings | = | a Rix-marc | — | 0 | 0 | 11 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 24 Skillings | = | a Rix-ort | — | 0 | 1 | 1 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 4 Marcs | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 3 | 0 | |
| 6 Marcs | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 11 Marcs | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 8 | 3 | |
| 14 Marcs | = | a Hat Ducat | — | 0 | 10 | 6 | |

## SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

*Stockholm, Upſal, &c. Thorn, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Runſtick | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{2}{3}\frac{7}{2}$ |
| 2 Runſticks | = | a Stiver | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 8 Runſticks | = | a Copper Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{5}{9}$ |
| 3 Copper Marcs | = | a Silver Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | $\frac{2}{3}\frac{4}{2}$ |
| 4 Copper Marcs | = | a Copper Dollar | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | $\frac{2}{3}$ |
| 9 Copper Marcs | = | a Caroline | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 3 Copper Dollars | = | a Silver Dollar | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | $\frac{2}{3}$ |
| 3 Silver Dollars | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 2 Rix-dollars | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

## RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

*Peterſburg, Archangel, &c. Moſcow, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Poluſca | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $2\frac{27}{100}$ |
| 2 Poluſcas | = | a Denuſca | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{27}{100}$ |
| 2 Denuſcas | = | * a Copec | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{27}{50}$ |
| 3 Copecs | = | an Altin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{11}{50}$ |
| 10 Copecs | = | a Grievener | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | $\frac{2}{5}$ |
| 25 Copecs | = | a Polpotin | — | 0 | 1 | 1 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 50 Copecs | = | a Poltin | — | 0 | 2 | 3 | |
| 100 Copecs | = | a Ruble | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 2 Rubles | = | a Xervonitz | — | 0 | 9 | 0 | |

## BASIL. *Zurich, Zug, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Rap | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/24 |
| 3 Rapen | = | a Fening | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/8 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/6 |
| 12 Fenings | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/2 |
| 15 Fenings | = | a Coarse Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2/5 |
| 18 Fenings | = | a Good Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1/4 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gulden | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 108 Cruitzers | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |

## ST. GALL. *Appenzel, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| An Heller | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/10 |
| 2 Hellers | = | a Fening | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/5 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/3 |
| 12 Fenings | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/2 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Coarse Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| 5 Cruitzers | = | a Good Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1/2 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 102 Cruitzers | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 3 | |

## BERN. *Lucerne, Neufchatel, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/24 |
| 4 Deniers | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/6 |
| 3 Cruitzers | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/2 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Plapert | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/3 |
| 5 Cruitzers | = | a Gros | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| 6 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2/5 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 0 | |
| 75 Cruitzers | = | a Gulden | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 135 Cruitzers | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |

## GENEVA. *Pekay, Bonne, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/32 |
| 2 Deniers | = | a Denier current | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/16 |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Small Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 12 Deniers current | = | a Sol current | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/4 |
| 12 Small Sols | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1/3 |
| 20 Sols current | = | * a Livre current | — | 0 | 1 | 3 | |
| 10½ Florins | = | a Patacoon | — | 0 | 3 | 11 | 1/2 |
| 15¾ Florins | = | a Croisade | — | 0 | 5 | 10 | 3/4 |
| 24 Florins | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 0 | |

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

*Liſle, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{24}$ |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 15 Deniers | = | * a Patard | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{5}{8}$ |
| 15 Patards | = | * a Piette | — | 0 | 0 | 9 | $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| 20 Sols | = | a Livre Tournois | | 0 | 0 | 10 | |
| 20 Patards | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 60 Sols | = | an Ecu of Ex. | | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| $10\frac{1}{2}$ Livres | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 3 | |
| 24 Livres | = | a Louis d'Or | — | 1 | 0 | 0 | |

*Dunkirk, St. Omer's, St. Quintin, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{24}$ |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 15 Deniers | = | * a Patard | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{5}{8}$ |
| 15 Sols | = | * a Piette | — | 0 | 0 | 7 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre Tournois | | 0 | 0 | 10 | |
| 3 Livres | = | an Ecu of Ex. | | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 24 Livres | = | a Louis d'Or | | 1 | 0 | 0 | |
| 24 Livres | = | a Guinea | — | 1 | 1 | 0 | |
| $30\frac{3}{8}$ Livres | = | a Moeda | — | 1 | 7 | 0 | |

*Paris, Lyons, Marſeilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{24}$ |
| 3 Deniers | = | a Liard | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{8}$ |
| 2 Liards | = | a Dardene | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{12}$ |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre Tournois | | 0 | 0 | 10 | |
| 60 Sols | = | an Ecu of Ex. | | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 6 Livres | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| $10\frac{1}{2}$ Livres | = | * a Piſtole | — | 0 | 8 | 4 | |
| 24 Livres | = | a Louis d'Or | — | 1 | 0 | 0 | |

PORTUGAL. *Liſbon, Oporto, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Re | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{27}{32}$ |
| 10 Rez | = | a Half Vintin | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{27}{64}$ |
| 20 Rez | = | a Vintin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{7}{32}$ |
| 5 Vintins | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 4 Teſtoons | = | a Cruſade of Ex. | — | 0 | 2 | 3 | |
| 24 Vintins | = | a New Cruſade | — | 0 | 2 | 8 | $\frac{2}{5}$ |
| 10 Teſtoons | = | * a Mitre | — | 0 | 5 | 7 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 48 Teſtoons | = | a Moidore | — | 1 | 7 | 0 | |
| 64 Teſtoons | = | a Joannes | — | 1 | 16 | 0 | |

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

SPAIN and CATALONIA.

*Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate.*

| | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Maravedie | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Maravedies | = | a Quartil — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 54 Maravedies | = | a Rial — | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| 2 Rials | = | a Piſtarine — | 0 | 0 | 10 |
| 8 Rials | = | * a Piaſtre of Ex. | 0 | 3 | 7 |
| 10 Rials | = | a Dollar — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 375 Maravedies | = | * a Ducat of Ex. | 0 | 4 | 11 |
| 32 Rials | = | * a Piſtole of Ex. | 0 | 14 | 4 |
| 36 Rials | = | a Piſtole — | 0 | 16 | 9 |

*Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Velon.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Maravedie | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Maravedies | = | an Ochavo — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Maravedies | = | a Quartil — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 34 Maravedies | = | * a Rial Velon | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 15 Rials | = | * a Piaſtre of Ex. | 0 | 3 | 7 |
| 512 Maravedies | = | a Piaſtre — | 0 | 3 | 7 |
| 60 Rials | = | * a Piſtole of Ex. | 0 | 14 | 4 |
| 2048 Maravedies | = | a Piſtole of Ex. | 0 | 14 | 4 |
| 70 Rials | = | a Piſtole — | 0 | 16 | 9 |

*Barcelona, Saragoſſa, Valencia, &c. Old Plate.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Maravedie | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 Maravedies | = | a Soldo — | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 2 Soldos | = | a Rial Old Plate | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 16 Soldos | = | * a Dollar — | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 20 Soldos | = | * a Libra — | 0 | 5 | 7 |
| 21 Soldos | = | * a Ducat — | 0 | 5 | 10 |
| 22 Soldos | = | * a Ducat — | 0 | 6 | 2 |
| 24 Soldos | = | * a Ducat — | 0 | 6 | 9 |
| 60 Soldos | = | a Piſtole — | 0 | 16 | 9 |

ITALY.

GENOA. *Novi, St. Remo, &c.*
CORSICA. *Baſtia, &c.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denari | = | —— — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Denari | = | a Soldi — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Soldi | = | a Chevalet — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 30 Soldi | = | a Teſtoon — | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 5 Lires | = | a Croiſade — | 0 | 3 | 7 |
| 115 Soldi | = | * a Pezzo of Ex. | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| 6 Teſtoons | = | a Genouine — | 0 | 6 | 2 |
| 20 Lires | = | a Piſtole — | 0 | 14 | 4 |

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

## PIEDMONT, SAVOY, AND SARDINIA.

*Turin, Chamberry, Cagliari, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denari | = | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/16 |
| 3 Denari | = | a Quatrini | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/16 |
| 12 Denari | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/4 |
| 12 Soldi | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 0 | 9 | |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 1 | 3 | |
| 6 Florins | = | a Scudi | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 7 Florins | = | a Ducattoon | — | 0 | 5 | 3 | |
| 13 Lires | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 3 | |
| 16 Lires | = | a Louis d'Or | — | 1 | 0 | 0 | |

*Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denari | | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2/32 |
| 3 Denari | = | a Quatrino | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/32 |
| 12 Denari | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/8 |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | 3/4 |
| 115 Soldi | = | a Scudi current | — | 0 | 4 | 2 | 1/2 |
| 117 Soldi | = | * a Scudi of Ex. | — | 0 | 4 | 3 | |
| 6 Lires | = | a Philip | — | 0 | 4 | 4 | 1/8 |
| 22 Lires | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 0 | |
| 23 Lires | = | a Spaniſh Piſtole | — | 0 | 10 | 9 | |

*Leghorn, Florence, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denari | | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/4 |
| 4 Denari | = | a Quatrini | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/16 |
| 12 Denari | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 5 Quatrini | = | a Craca | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2/3 |
| 8 Cracas | = | a Quilo | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5/6 |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | 1/3 |
| 6 Lires | = | a Piaſtre of Ex. | — | 0 | 4 | 2 | |
| 7½ Lires | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 5 | 2 | 1/2 |
| 22 Lires | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 6 | |

## ROME, *Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Quatrini | | —— | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/20 |
| 5 Quatrini | = | a Bayoc | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/4 |
| 8 Bayocs | = | a Julio | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 10 Bayocs | = | a Stampt Julio | — | 0 | 0 | 7 | 1/2 |
| 24 Bayocs | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 10 Julios | = | a Crown current | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 12 Julios | = | * a Crown ſtampt | — | 0 | 6 | 0 | |
| 18 Julios | = | a Chequin | — | 0 | 9 | 0 | |
| 31 Julios | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 6 | |

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

## NAPLES. *Gaieta, Capua, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Quatrini | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 3 Quatrini | = | a Grain | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/4 |
| 10 Grains | = | a Carlin | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | |
| 40 Quatrini | = | a Paulo | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1/2 |
| 20 Grains | = | a Tarin | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 40 Grains | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 1 | 4 | |
| 100 Grains | = | a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 23 Tarins | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 4 | |
| 25 Tarins | = | a Spaniſh Piſtole | | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

## SICILY AND MALTA. *Palermo, Meſſina, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Pichila | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/30 |
| 6 Pichili | = | a Grain | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 8 Pichili | = | a Ponti | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 10 Grains | = | a Carlin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/2 |
| 20 Grains | = | a Tarin | — | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1/2 |
| 6 Tarins | = | * a Florin of Ex. | | 0 | 1 | 6 | 1/2 |
| 13 Tarins | = | a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 60 Carlins | = | * an Ounce | — | 0 | 7 | 8 | 1/2 |
| 2 Ounces | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 4 | |

## *Bologna, Ravenna, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Quatrini | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 6 Quatrini | = | a Bayoc | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/4 |
| 10 Bayocs | = | a Julio | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 20 Bayocs | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3 Julios | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 85 Bayocs | = | a Scudi of Ex. | | 0 | 4 | 3 | |
| 100 Bayocs | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 105 Bayocs | = | a Ducatoon | | 0 | 5 | 3 | |
| 31 Julios | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 15 | 6 | |

## VENICE. *Bergamo, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Picoli | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/30 |
| 12 Picoli | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 6½ Soldi | = | * a Gros | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1/2 |
| 18 Soldi | = | a Jule | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | 3/4 |
| 3 Jules | = | a Teſtoon | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 124 Soldi | = | a Ducat current | | 0 | 3 | 5 | 1/2 |
| 24 Gros | = | * a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 4 | 4 | |
| 17 Lires | = | a Chequin | — | 0 | 9 | 2 | |

EUROPE, S. Parts.

## TURKEY. *Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Mangar | = | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/4 |
| 4 Mangars | = | an Aſper | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/5 |
| 3 Aſpers | = | a Parac | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| 5 Aſpers | = | a Beſtic | — | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| 10 Aſpers | = | an Oſtic | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 20 Aſpers | = | a Solota | — | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 80 Aſpers | = | * a Piaſtre | — | 0 | 4 | 0 | |
| 100 Aſpers | = | a Caragrouch | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 10 Solotas | = | a Xeriff | — | 0 | 10 | 0 | |

## ARABIA. *Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Carret | = | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/4 |
| 5¼ Carrets | = | a Caveer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 7 Carrets | = | * a Comaſhee | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 80 Carrets | = | a Larin | — | 0 | 0 | 10 | |
| 18 Comaſhees | = | an Abyſs | — | 0 | 1 | 4 | |
| 60 Comaſhees | = | * a Piaſtre | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 80 Caveers | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 100 Comaſhees | = | a Sequin | — | 0 | 7 | 6 | |
| 80 Larins | = | * a Tomond | — | 3 | 7 | 6 | |

ASIA.

## PERSIA. *Iſpahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Coz | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Coz | = | a Biſti | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 10 Coz | = | a Shahee | — | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 20 Coz | = | a Mamooda | — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 25 Coz | = | a Larin | — | 0 | 0 | 10 |
| 4 Shahees | = | an Abaſhee | — | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| 5 Abaſhees | = | an Or | — | 0 | 6 | 8 |
| 12 Abaſhees | = | a Bovello | — | 0 | 16 | 0 |
| 50 Abaſhees | = | * a Tomond | — | 3 | 6 | 8 |

MOGUL.

## GUZURAT. *Surat, Cambay, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Pecka | = | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 2 Peckas | = | a Pice | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/3 |
| 4 Pices | = | a Fanam | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| 5 Pices | = | a Viz | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| 16 Pices | = | an Ana | — | 0 | 0 | 7 | |
| 4 Anas | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | an Engliſh Crown | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 14 Anas | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 9 | |
| 4 Pagodas | = | a Gold Rupee | — | 1 | 15 | 0 | |

ASIA.

MOGUL.

MALABAR.

*Bombay, Dabul, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Budgrook | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{21}{800}$ |
| 2 Budgrooks | = | * a Re | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{21}{400}$ |
| 5 Rez | = | a Pice | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{21}{160}$ |
| 16 Pices | = | a Laree | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | $\frac{2}{5}$ |
| 20 Pices | = | a Quarter | | 0 | 0 | 6 | $\frac{2}{4}$ |
| 240 Rez | = | a Xeraphim | | 0 | 1 | 4 | $\frac{1}{5}$ |
| 4 Quarters | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 3 | |
| 14 Quarters | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 0 | |
| 60 Quarters | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 | |

*Goa, Viſapour, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Re | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{21}{400}$ |
| 2 Rez | = | a Bazaraco | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{21}{200}$ |
| 2 Bazaracas | = | a Pecka | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{21}{100}$ |
| 20 Rez | = | a Vintin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{7}{50}$ |
| 4 Vintins | = | a Laree | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | $\frac{3}{5}$ |
| 3 Larees | = | a Xeraphim | | 0 | 1 | 4 | $\frac{1}{5}$ |
| 42 Vintins | = | a Tangu | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 4 Tangus | = | a Paru | — | 0 | 18 | 0 | |
| 8 Tangus | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 | |

COROMANDEL, *Madras, Pondicherry, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Caſh | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{80}$ |
| 5 Caſh | = | a Viz | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 2 Viz | = | a Pice | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| 6 Pices | = | a Fical | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 18 Pices | = | a Fanam | — | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| 10 Fanams | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | an Engliſh Crown | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 6 Fanams | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 9 | |
| 4 Pagodas | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 | |

BENGAL. *Callicut, Calcutta, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Pice | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{320}$ |
| 4 Pices | = | a Fanam | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{80}$ |
| 6 Pices | = | a Viz | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 12 Pices | = | an Ana | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{3}{40}$ |
| 10 Anas | = | a Fiano | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 16 Anas | = | a Rupee * | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | a French Ecu | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | an Engliſh Crown | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 56 Anas | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 9 | |

* Major Rennell ſays, that we may with eaſe reduce any large ſum in rupees to ſterling, by calculating roundly at the rate of a lack of rupees to ten thouſand pounds; and that a crore of rupees is equal to a million ſterling.

ASIA.

SIAM. *Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Cori | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3/5 |
| 10 Cori | = | a Fettee | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 125 Fettees | = | a Sataleer | — | 0 | 0 | 7 | |
| 250 Fettees | = | a Sooco | — | 0 | 1 | 3 | |
| 500 Fettees | = | a Tical | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 900 Fettees | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 2 Ticals | = | a Rial | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 4 Soocos | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 8 Sataleers | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |

CHINA. *Pekin, Canton, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Caxa | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 10 Caxa | = | a Candereen | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| 10 Candereens | = | a Mace | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 35 Candereens | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 70 Candereens | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 4 | 1/2 |
| 7 Maces | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 10 Maces | = | a Tale | — | 0 | 6 | 8 | |

JAPAN. *Jeddo, Meaco, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Piti | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2/5 |
| 20 Pitis | = | a Mace | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | |
| 15 Maces | = | an Ounce Silver | — | 0 | 4 | 10 | 1/3 |
| 20 Maces | = | a Tale | — | 0 | 6 | 8 | |
| 30 Maces | = | an Ingot | — | 0 | 9 | 8 | 2/3 |
| 13 Ounces Silver | = | an Ounce Gold | — | 3 | 3 | 0 | |
| 2 Ounces Gold | = | a Japanese | — | 6 | 6 | 0 | |
| 2 Japaneses | = | a Double | — | 12 | 12 | 0 | |
| 21 Ounces Gold | = | *a Cattee | — | 66 | 3 | 0 | |

AFRICA.

EGYPT. *Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| An Asper | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5/24 |
| 3 Aspers | = | a Medin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| 24 Medins | = | an Italian Ducat | — | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 80 Aspers | = | * a Piastre | — | 0 | 4 | 0 | |
| 30 Medins | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 96 Aspers | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 32 Medins | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 200 Aspers | = | a Sultanin | — | 0 | 10 | 0 | |
| 70 Medins | = | a Pargo Dollar | — | 0 | 10 | 6 | |

AFRICA.

## BARBARY. *Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| An Aſper | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5/8 |
| 3 Aſpers | = | a Medin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2/3 |
| 10 Aſpers | = | a Rial Old Plate | | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5/6 |
| 2 Rials | = | a Double | — | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1/12 |
| 4 Doubles | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 24 Medins | = | a Silver Chequin | | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 30 Medins | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 180 Aſpers | = | a Zequin | — | 0 | 8 | 10 | |
| 15 Doubles | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

## MOROCCO. *Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangier, Sallee, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fluce | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/15 |
| 24 Fluces | = | a Blanquil | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| 4 Blanquils | = | an Ounce | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 7 Blanquils | = | an Octavo | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 14 Blanquils | = | a Quarto | — | 0 | 2 | 4 | |
| 2 Quartos | = | a Medio | — | 0 | 4 | 8 | |
| 28 Blanquils | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 54 Blanquils | = | a Xequin | — | 0 | 9 | 0 | |
| 100 Blanquils | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

AMERICA. WEST INDIES.

## ENGLISH. *Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Halfpenny | | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5/160 |
| 2 Halfpence | = | * a Penny | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5/80 |
| 7½ Pence | = | a Bit | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1/2 |
| 12 Pence | = | * a Shilling | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | 11/20 |
| 75 Pence | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 7 Shillings | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 20 Shillings | = | * a Pound | — | 0 | 14 | 3 | |
| 24 Shillings | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |
| 30 Shillings | = | a Guinea | — | 1 | 1 | 0 | |

## FRENCH. *St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Half Sol | | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 11/640 |
| 2 Half Sols | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 11/320 |
| 7½ Sols | = | a Half Scalin | | 0 | 0 | 2 | 11/160 |
| 15 Sols | = | a Scalin | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | 3/80 |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre | — | 0 | 0 | 7 | 3/60 |
| 7 Livres | = | a Dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 8 Livres | = | an Ecu | — | 0 | 4 | 10 | 1/2 |
| 26 Livres | = | a Piſtole | — | 0 | 16 | 9 | |
| 32 Livres | = | a Louis d'Or | | 1 | 0 | 0 | |

AMERICA. CONTINENT.

ENGLISH. *Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *A Penny | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 12 Pence | = | * a Shilling | — | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 20 Shillings | = | * a Pound | — | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 3 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 4 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 5 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 6 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 7 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 8 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 9 Pounds | | | | | | |
| 10 Pounds | | | | | | |

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

---

FRENCH. *Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| * A Denier | | |
| 12 Deniers | = | * a Sol |
| 20 Sols | = | * a Livre |
| 2 Livres | | |
| 3 Livres | | |
| 4 Livres | | |
| 5 Livres | | |
| 6 Livres | | |
| 7 Livres | | |
| 8 Livres | | |
| 9 Livres | | |
| 10 Livres | | |

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

*Note.* For all the *Spaniſh*, *Portugueſe*, *Dutch*, and *Daniſh* Dominions, either on the Continent or in the WEST INDIES, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

# A NEW
# CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE
OF
# *REMARKABLE EVENTS,*
# DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS;
ALSO
## THE ÆRA, THE COUNTRY, AND WRITINGS OF LEARNED MEN:

The whole comprehending, in one View, the Analysis or Outlines of General History, from the Creation to the present Time.

Bef. Chriſt.

4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
4003 The birth of Cain, the firſt who was born of a woman.
3017 Enoch, for his piety, is tranſlated to Heaven.
2348 The whole world is deſtroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.
2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's poſterity, upon which God miraculouſly confounds their language, and thus diſperſes them into different nations.

About the ſame time, Noah is, with great probability, ſuppoſed to have parted from his rebellious offſpring, and to have led a colony of ſome of the more tractable into the Eaſt, and there either he, or one of his ſucceſſors, to have founded the ancient Chineſe monarchy.

2234 The celeſtial obſervations are begun at Babylon, the city which firſt gave birth to learning and the ſciences.
2188 Miſraim, the ſon of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which laſted 1663 years, down to its conqueſt by Cambyſes, in 525 before Chriſt.
2059 Ninus, the ſon of Belus, founds the kingdom of Aſſyria, which laſted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Aſſyrians of Babylon, thoſe of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.
1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of ſojourning.
1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are deſtroyed for their wickedneſs, by fire from Heaven.
1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.
1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents letters.
1715 Prometheus firſt ſtruck fire from ſtints.
1635 Joſeph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Geneſis, containing a period of 2369 years.
1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God firſt high-prieſt of the Iſraelites.
1571 Moſes, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.
1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and founds the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.
1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and founds the kingdom of Troy.
1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
1491 Moſes performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Iſraelites, beſides children; which completed the 430 years of ſojourning. They miraculouſly paſs through the Red Sea, and come to the Deſert of Sinai, where Moſes receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and ſets up the tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.

1485 The firſt ſhip that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
1458 The firſt Olympic games celebrated at Olympia in Greece.
1452 The Pentateuch, or five books of Moſes, are written in the land of Moab, where he died in the year following, aged 120.
1451 The Iſraelites, after ſojourning in the Wilderneſs forty years, are led under Joſhua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themſelves, after having ſubdued the natives; and the period of the ſabbatical year commences.
1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave riſe to the Trojan war, and ſiege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.
1048 David is ſole king of Iſrael.
1004 The temple is ſolemnly dedicated by Solomon.
896 Elijah, the prophet, is tranſlated to Heaven.
894 Money firſt made of gold and ſilver at Argos.
869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.
814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
776 The firſt Olympiad begins.
753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, firſt king of the Romans.
720 Samaria taken, after three years' ſiege, and the kingdom of Iſrael finiſhed, by Salmanaſar, king of Aſſyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.
The firſt eclipſe of the moon on record.
658 Byzantium (now Conſtantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, ſome Phœnicians ſailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
600 Thales of Miletus travels into Egypt, conſults the prieſts of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, aſtronomy, and philoſophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipſes, gives general notions of the univerſe, and maintains that one ſupreme intelligence regulates all its motions.
Maps, globes, and the ſigns of the Zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the ſcholar of Thales.
597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive, by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.
587 The city of Jeruſalem taken after a ſiege of 18 months.
562 The firſt comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable ſcaffold.
559 Cyrus the firſt king of Perſia.
538 The kingdom of Babylon finiſhed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, iſſues an edict for the return of the Jews.
534 The firſt tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Theſpis.
526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library firſt founded.
515 The ſecond temple at Jeruſalem is finiſhed under Darius.
509 Tarquin, the ſeventh and laſt king of the Romans is expelled, and Rome is governed by two conſuls, and other republican magiſtrates, till the battle of Pharſalia, being a ſpace of 461 years.
504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occaſion to the Perſian invaſion of Greece.
486 Æſchylus the Greek poet firſt gains the prize of tragedy.
481 Xerxes the Great, king of Perſia, begins his expedition againſt Greece.
458 Ezra is ſent from Babylon to Jeruſalem, with the captive Jews and the veſſels of gold and ſilver, &c. being ſeventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
454 The Romans ſend to Athens for Solon's laws.
451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
430 The hiſtory of the Old Teſtament finiſhes about this time.
Malachi the laſt of the prophets.
401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the ſoul, and a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, for which, and other ſublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who ſoon after repent, and erect to his memory a ſtatue of braſs.
331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Perſia, and other nations of Aſia.
323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.
285 Dionyſius of Alexandria began his aſtronomical æra on Monday June 26, being the firſt who found the exact ſolar year to conſiſt of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.

284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs ſeventy-two interpreters to tranſlate the Old Teſtament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
269 The firſt coining of ſilver at Rome.
254 The firſt Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marble, called the Parian chronicle, compoſed.
260 The Romans firſt concern themſelves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at ſea.
237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, cauſes his ſon Hannibal, at nine years old, to ſwear eternal enmity to the Romans.
218 The ſecond Punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal paſſes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in ſeveral battles, but does not improve his victories by the ſtorming of Rome.
190 The firſt Roman army enters Aſia, and, from the ſpoils of Antiochus, brings the Aſiatic luxury firſt to Rome.
168 Perſeus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom
167 The firſt library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, razed to the ground by the Romans.
135 The hiſtory of the Apocrypha ends.
52 Julius Cæſar makes his firſt expedition into Britain.
47 The battle of Pharſalia between Cæſar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
The Alexandrian library, conſiſting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himſelf.
The ſolar year introduced by Cæſar.
44 Cæſar, the greateſt of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and ſlain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the ſenate-houſe.
31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæſar.
30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themſelves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.
27 Octavius, by a decree of the ſenate, obtains the title of Auguſtus Cæſar, and an abſolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the firſt Roman emperor.
8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
The temple of Janus is ſhut by Auguſtus as an emblem of univerſal peace, and JESUS CHRIST is ſuppoſed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

A. C.
12 CHRIST hears the doctors in the temple; and aſks them queſtions.
27 ——— is baptized in the wilderneſs by John.
33 ——— is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock P. M.
His reſurrection on Sunday, April 5; his aſcenſion, Thurſday, May 14.
36 St. Paul converted.
39 St. Matthew writes his Goſpel.
Pontius Pilate kills himſelf.
40 The name of Chriſtians firſt given at Antioch to the followers of Chriſt.
43 Claudius Cæſar's expedition into Britain.
44 St. Mark writes his Goſpel.
49 London is founded by the Romans; 368, ſurrounded by ditto with a wall, ſome parts of which are ſtill obſervable.
51 Caractacus, the Britiſh king, is carried in chains to Rome.
52 The council of the Apoſtles at Jeruſalem.
55 St. Luke writes his Goſpel.
59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
——— perſecutes the Druids in Britain.
61 Boadicea, the Britiſh queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered ſoon after by Suetonius governor of Britain.
62 St. Paul ſent in bonds to Rome—writes his epiſtles between 51 and 66.
63 The Acts of the Apoſtles written.
Chriſtianity is ſuppoſed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or ſome of his diſciples, about this time.
64 Rome ſet on fire, and burned for ſix days; upon which began (under Nero) the firſt perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.
67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
70 Whilſt the factious Jews are deſtroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the

Roman general, takes Jeruſalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to paſs over it.
79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Veſuvius.
88 The philoſophers expelled Rome by Domitian.
85 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, to protect the civiliſed Britons from the incurſions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus, on the Grampian hills; and firſt ſails round Britain, which he diſcovers to be an iſland.
96 St. John the Evangeliſt wrote his revelation—his goſpel in 97.
121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the ſouthern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcaſtle and Carliſle: but this alſo proving ineffectual, Pollius Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick, ſince called Antoninus's wall.
135 The ſecond Jewiſh war ends, when they were all baniſhed Judea.
139 Juſtin writes his firſt Apology for the Chriſtians.
141 A number of hereſies appear about this time.
152 The emperor Antoninus Pius ſtops the perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.
217 The Septuagint ſaid to be found in a caſk.
222 About this time the Roman empire begins to ſink under its own weight. The Barbarians begin their irruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to moleſt the empire.
260 Valerius is taken priſoner by Sapor, king of Perſia, and flayed alive.
274 Silk firſt brought from India; the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by ſome monks, 551; firſt worn by the clergy in England, 1534.
291 Two emperors, and two Cæſars, march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
306 Conſtantine the Great begins his reign.
308 Cardinals firſt created.
313 The tenth perſecution ends by an edict of Conſtantine, who favours the Chriſtians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
314 Three biſhops, or fathers, are ſent from Britain to aſſiſt at the council of Arles.
325 The firſt general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended, againſt Arius, where was compoſed the famous Nicene creed, which we attribute to them.
328 Conſtantine removes the ſeat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thence-forward called Conſtantinople.
331 ——— orders all the heathen temples to be deſtroyed.
363 The Roman emperor Julian, ſurnamed the apoſtate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jeruſalem.
364 The Roman empire is divided into the eaſtern (Conſtantinople the capital) and weſtern (of which Rome continued to be the capital), each being now under the government of different emperors.
400 Bells introduced by biſhop Paulinus, of Campania.
404 The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus.
406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, ſpread into France and Spain, by a conceſſion of Honorius, emperor of the Weſt.
410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Viſi-Goths.
412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
420 The kingdom of France begins upon the lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; adviſing the Britons to arm in their own defence, and truſt to their own valour.
446 The Britons, now left to themſelves, are greatly haraſſed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no aſſiſtance from that quarter.
447 Attila (ſurnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns ravages the Roman empire.
449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, againſt the Scots and Picts.
455 The Saxons, having repulſed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to eſtabliſh themſelves in Kent, under Hengiſt.
476 The weſtern empire is finiſhed, 523 years after the battle of Pharſalia; upon the ruins of which ſeveral new ſtates ariſe in Italy and other parts, conſiſting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguiſhed, and the works of the learned deſtroyed.
496 Clovis, king of France, baptized, and Chriſtianity begins in that kingdom.
508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
513 Conſtantinople beſieged by Vitellianus, whoſe fleet is burned by a ſpeculum of braſs.
516 The computing of time by the Chriſtian æra is introduced by Dionyſius the monk.
529 The code of Juſtinian, the eaſtern emperor, is publiſhed.

557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Aſia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
581 Latin ceaſed to be ſpoken about this time in Italy.
596 Auguſtine the monk comes into England, with forty monks.
606 Here begins the power of the popes, by the conceſſion of Phocas, emperor of the Eaſt.
622 Mahomet, a falſe prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age and the tenth of his miniſtry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their deſcent. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the flight.
637 Jeruſalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
653 The Saracens now extend their conqueſts on every ſide, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity.
664 Glaſs introduced in England by Benalt, a monk.
685 The Britons, after a brave ſtruggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
726 The controverſy about images begins, and occaſions many inſurrections in the eaſtern empire.
748 The computing of years from the birth of Chriſt began to be uſed in hiſtory.
749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital for the caliphs of the houſe of Abbas.
800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the weſtern empire; gives the preſent names to the days and months; endeavours to reſtore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet diſpoſed for it, being ſolely engroſſed in military enterpriſes.
826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his ſubjects for being a Chriſtian.
828 Egbert, king of Weſſex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
836 The Flemings trade to Scotland for fiſh.
838 The Scots and Picts have a deciſive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth; which begins the ſecond period of the Scottiſh hiſtory.
867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
896 Alfred the Great, after ſubduing the Daniſh invaders (againſt whom he fought 56 battles by ſea and land), compoſes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, tythings; erects county-courts, and founds the univerſity of Oxford about this time.
915 The univerſity of Cambridge founded.
936 The Saracen empire is divided by uſurpation into ſeven kingdoms.
975 Pope Boniface VII. is depoſed and baniſhed for his crimes.
979 Coronation oaths ſaid to be firſt uſed in England.
991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto uſed.
996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
999 Boleſlaus, the firſt king of Poland.
1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in uſe; that of linen rags in 1170; the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.
1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.
1015 Children forbidden by law to be ſold by their parents in England.
1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets poſſeſſion of England.
1040 The Danes, after ſeveral engagements with various ſucceſs, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hoſtile manner.
1041 The Saxon line reſtored under Edward the Confeſſor.
1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, ſerving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take poſſeſſion of Perſia.
1054 Leo IX. the firſt pope that maintained an army.
1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunſinane, and marries the princeſs Margaret, ſiſter to Edgar Atheling.
1065 The Turks take Jeruſalem from the Saracens.
1066 The battle of Haſtings fought between Harold and William (ſurnamed the Baſtard) duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and ſlain, after which William becomes king of England.
1070 William introduces the feudal law.
Muſical notes invented.
1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope quarrel about the nomination of

the German biſhops. Henry, in penance, walks bare-footed to the pope towards the end of January.

1076 Juſtices of the peace firſt appointed in England.

1080 Doomſday book began to be compiled by order of William from a ſurvey of all the eſtates in England, and finiſhed in 1086.

The Tower of London built by ditto to curb his Engliſh ſubjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the Engliſh or Saxon language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.

1091 The Saracens in Spain being hard preſſed by the Spaniards, call to their aſſiſtance Joſeph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors get poſſeſſion of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.

1096 The firſt cruſade to the Holy Land is begun under ſeveral Chriſtian princes, to drive the infidels from Jeruſalem.

1110 Edgar Atheling, the laſt of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reſide as a ſubject.

1118 The order of the Knights Templars inſtituted to defend the ſepulchre at Jeruſalem, and to protect Chriſtian ſtrangers.

1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.

1163 London bridge, conſiſting of 19 ſmall arches, firſt built of ſtone.

1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.

1172 Henry II. king of England (and firſt of the Plantagenets) takes poſſeſſion of Ireland, which, from that period, has been governed by an Engliſh viceroy, or lord lieutenant.

1176 England is divided, by Henry, into ſix circuits, and juſtice is diſpenſed by itinerant judges.

1180 Glaſs windows began to be uſed in private houſes in England.

1181 The laws of England are digeſted about this time by Glanville.

1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the ſtirrups of his ſaddle when he mounted his horſe.

1186 The great conjunction of the ſun and moon and all the planets in Libra happened in September.

1192 The battle of Aſcalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladine's army, conſiſting of 300,000 combatants.

1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* firſt uſed as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.

1200 Chimneys were not known in England.

Surnames now began to be uſed; firſt among the nobility.

1208 London incorporated, and obtained their firſt charter for electing their lord-mayor and other magiſtrates, from king John.

1215 Magna Charta is ſigned by king John and the barons of England.

Court of Common Pleas eſtabliſhed.

1227 The Tartars, a new race of heroes, under Gingis-Khan, emerge from the northern parts of Aſia, over-run all the Saracen empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and deſolation wherever they march.

1233 The Inquiſition, begun in 1204, is now committed to the Dominicans.

The houſes of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, ſtill thatched with ſtraw.

1253 The famous aſtronomical tables are compoſed by Alphonſo, king of Caſtile.

1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finiſhes the empire of the Saracens.

1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 ſail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III who recovers the Weſtern Iſles.

1264 According to ſome writers, the commons of England were not ſummoned to parliament till this period.

1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.

1273 The empire of the preſent Auſtrian family begins in Germany.

1282 Llewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.

1284 Edward II. born at Caernarvon, is the firſt prince of Wales.

1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is diſputed by twelve candidates, who ſubmit their claims to the arbitration of Edward king of England; which lays the foundation of a long and deſolating war between both nations.

1295 There is a regular ſucceſſion of Engliſh parliaments from this year, being the 23d of Edward I.

1298 The preſent Turkiſh empire begins in Bythynia under Ottoman.

Silver-hafted knives, ſpoons, and cups, a great luxury.

Tallow candles ſo great a luxury, that ſplinters of wood were uſed for lights.

Wine ſold by apothecaries as a cordial.

1302 The mariner's compaſs invented, or improved, by Givia, of Naples.
1307 The beginning of the Swiſs cantons.
1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
1310 Lincoln's Inn ſociety eſtabliſhed.
1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which eſtabliſhes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
The cardinals ſet fire to the conclave, and ſeparate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
1336 Two Brabant weavers ſettle at York, which, ſays Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our ſubjects.
1337 The firſt comet whoſe courſe is deſcribed with aſtronomical exactneſs.
1340 Gunpowder and guns firſt invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologn; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Creſſy; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.
Oil painting firſt made uſe of by John Vaneck.
Heralds' college inſtituted in England.
1344 Gold firſt coined in England.
The firſt creation to titles by patent uſed by Edward III.
1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken priſoner.
1349 The order of the Garter inſtituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and conſiſts of 26 knights.
1352 The Turks firſt enter Europe.
1354 The money in Scotland till now the ſame as in England.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which king John of France and his ſon are taken priſoners by Edward the black prince.
1357 Coals firſt brought to London.
1358 Arms of England and France firſt quartered by Edward III.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to Engliſh, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.
John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, begins about this time to oppoſe the errors of the Church of Rome with great acuteneſs and ſpirit. His followers are called Lollards.
1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands eſtabliſhed in London.
Windſor caſtle built by Edward III.
1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotſpur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the ballad of Chevy Chace.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amuſement.
1399 Weſtminſter abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Weſtminſter hall ditto.
Order of the Bath inſtituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed in 1725; conſiſting of 38 knights.
1410 Guildhall, London, built.
1411 The univerſity of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
1428 The ſiege of Orleans, the firſt blow to the Engliſh power in France.
1430 About this time Laurentius of Haarlem invented the art of printing, which he practiſed with wooden types. Guttenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of caſting the types in matrices. Frederic Corſellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton who introduced into England the art of printing with fuſile types in 1474.
1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The ſea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
1453 Conſtantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eaſtern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Conſtantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
1454 The univerſity of Glaſgow, in Scotland, founded.
1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
1477 The univerſity of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
1483 Richard III. king of England, and the laſt of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Boſworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, after a conteſt of 30 years, and the loſs of 100,000 men.
1488 Henry eſtabliſhes fifty yeomen of the guards, the firſt ſtanding army.
1489 Maps and ſea charts firſt brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely ſubdued by Ferdinand, and become ſubjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill obſerved by the Spaniards, whoſe clergy employ the

powers of the Inquiſition, with all its tortures; and in 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the oppoſite coaſt of Africa, from whence they originally came.

1492 America firſt diſcovered by Columbus, a Genoeſe, in the ſervice of Spain.
1494 Algebra firſt known in Europe.
1497 The Portugueſe firſt ſail to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſius, from whom it has its name.
1499 North America ditto, for Henry VII. by Cabot.
1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into ſix circles, and adds four more in 1512.
1505 Shillings firſt coined in England.
1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt is conquered by the Turks.
1518 Magellan, in the ſervice of Spain, firſt diſcovers the ſtraits of that name in South America.
1520 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.
1529 The name of Proteſtant takes its riſe from the Reformed proteſting againſt the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
1534 The Reformation takes place in England under Henry VIII.
1537 Religious houſes diſſolved by ditto.
1539 The firſt Engliſh edition of the Bible authoriſed; the preſent tranſlation finiſhed 1611.
About this time cannon began to be uſed in ſhips.
1543 Silk ſtockings firſt worn by the French king; firſt worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the ſteel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee, of St. John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
Pins firſt uſed in England, before which time the ladies uſed ſkewers.
1544 Good lands let in England at one ſhilling per acre.
1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
1546 Firſt law in England eſtabliſhing the intereſt of money at ten per cent.
1549 Lord lieutenants of counties inſtituted in England.
1550 Horſe-guards inſtituted in England.
1555 The Ruſſian company eſtabliſhed in England.
1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
1563 Knives firſt made in England.
1569 Royal Exchange firſt built.
1572 The great maſſacre of Proteſtants at Paris.
1579 The Dutch ſhake off the Spaniſh yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
Engliſh Eaſt-India company incorporated—eſtabliſhed in 1600.
Engliſh Turkey company incorporated.
1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the firſt Engliſh circumnavigator.
Parochial regiſter firſt appointed in England.
1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
1583 Tobacco firſt brought from Virginia into England.
1587 Mary queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years impriſonment.
1588 The Spaniſh Armada deſtroyed by Drake and other Engliſh admirals.
Henry IV. paſſes the edict of Nantz tolerating the Proteſtants.
1589 Coaches firſt introduced into England; hackney act 1693; increaſed to 1000, in 1770.
1590 Band of penſioners inſtituted in England.
1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
1597 Watches firſt brought into England from Germany.
1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 Queen Elizabeth (the laſt of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and firſt of the Stuarts) as her ſucceſſor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
1604 The Gunpowder plot diſcovered at Weſtminſter: being a project of the Roman Catholics to blow up the king and both houſes of parliament.

1606 Oaths of allegiance firſt adminiſtered in England.
1608 Galileo, of Florence, firſt diſcovers the ſatellites about the planet Saturn, by the teleſcope, then juſt invented in Holland.
1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravaillac, a prieſt.
1611 Baronets firſt created in England, by James I.
1614 Napier of Merchiſton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
1616 The firſt permanent ſettlement in Virginia.
1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Engliſhman, diſcovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
1620 The broad ſilk manufactory from raw ſilk introduced into England.
1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
1625 King James dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſon, Charles I.
The iſland of Barbadoes, the firſt Engliſh ſettlement in the Weſt Indies, is planted.
1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
1627 The thermometer invented by Drabellius.
1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Proteſtants in Germany, is killed.
1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
Regular poſts eſtabliſhed from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
1640 King Charles diſobliges his Scottiſh ſubjects; on which their army under general Leſley enters England, and takes Newcaſtle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
The maſſacre in Ireland, when 40,000 Engliſh proteſtants were killed.
1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had oppoſed his arbitrary meaſures; which begins the civil war in England.
1643 Exciſe on beer, ale, &c firſt impoſed by parliament.
1646 Epiſcopacy aboliſhed in England.
1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
1654 Cromwell aſſumes the protectorſhip.
1655 The Engliſh, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is ſucceeded in the protectorſhip by his ſon Richard.
1660 King Charles II is reſtored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Epiſcopacy reſtored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark, being oppreſſed by the nobles, ſurrender their privileges to Frederick III. who becomes abſolute.
1662 The Royal Society eſtabliſhed in London, by Charles II.
1663 Carolina planted; in 1728, divided into two ſeparate governments.
1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch by the Engliſh.
1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 perſons.
1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were deſtroyed 13,000 houſes, and 400 ſtreets.
Tea firſt uſed in England.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the Engliſh the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennſylvania, New York, and New Jerſey.
1668 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle,
St. James's park planted, and made a thorough-fare for public uſe, by Charles II.
1670 The Engliſh Hudſon's Bay company incorporated.
1672 Louis XIV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their ſluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.
African company eſtabliſhed.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act paſſed.
1680 A great comet appeared, and, from its nearneſs to our earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued viſible from Nov. 3 to March 9.
William Penn, a quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennſylvania.
1683 India ſtock ſold from 360 to 500 per cent.
1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is ſucceeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural ſon to Charles II. raiſes a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz infamouſly revoked by Louis XIV. and the Proteſtants cruelly perſecuted.
1687 The palace of Verſailles, near Paris, finiſhed by Louis XIV.
1688 The revolution in Great Britain begins, Nov. 5; king James abdicates, and retires to France, December 3.

1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and ſon-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16.
Viſcount Dundee ſtands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by general Mackey, at the battle of Killycrankie; upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, diſperſe.
The land-tax paſſed in England.
The toleration act paſſed in ditto.
Several biſhops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William againſt James, in Ireland.
1691 The war in Ireland finiſhed, by the ſurrender of Limerick to William.
1692 The Engliſh and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Ruſſel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muſkets firſt uſed, by the French againſt the confederates, in the battle of Turin.
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
Bank of England eſtabliſhed by king William.
The firſt public lottery was drawn this year.
Maſſacre of Highlanders at Glencoe by king William's troops.
1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp duties inſtituted in England.
1695 The peace of Ryſwyck.
1699 The Scots ſettled a colony at the iſthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
1700 Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.
King James II. dies at St Germains, in the 68th year of his age.
1701 Pruſſia erected into a kingdom.
Society for the propagation of the goſpel in foreign parts eſtabliſhed.
1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is ſucceeded by queen Anne, daughter to James II. who, with the emperor, and States General, renews the war againſt France and Spain.
1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by admiral Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim won by the duke of Marlborough and allies, againſt the French.
The court of exchequer inſtituted in England.
1706 The treaty of union betwixt England and Scotland ſigned July 22.
The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
1707 The firſt Britiſh parliament.
1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
1709 Peter the Great, czar of Muſcovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig miniſtry for others more favourable to the intereſt of her ſuppoſed brother, the late Pretender.
The cathedral church of St Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Chriſtopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expenſe, by a duty on coals.
The Engliſh South-Sea company began.
1712 The duke of Hamilton and lord Mohun killed in a duel in Hyde-Park.
1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New Britain, and Hudſon's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were alſo confirmed to the ſaid crown by this treaty.
1714 Queen Anne dies at the age of 50, and is ſucceeded by George I.
Intereſt reduced to five per cent.
1715 Louis XIV. dies, and is ſucceeded by his great-grandſon, Louis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action at Sheriff-muir, and the ſurrender of Preſton, both in November, when the rebels diſperſe.
1716 The Pretender married to the princeſs Sobieſki, grand-daughter of John Sobieſki, late king of Poland.
An act paſſed for ſeptennial parliaments.
1719 The Miſſiſſippi ſcheme at its height in France.
Lombe's ſilk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one eighth of a mile; one water-wheel moves the reſt; and in 24 hours it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine ſilk thread.
1720 The South-Sea ſcheme in England, begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite ſunk about September 29.
1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is ſucceeded by his only ſon, George II.

Inoculation firſt tried on criminals with ſucceſs.
Ruſſia, formerly a dukedom, is now eſtabliſhed as an empire.

1732 Kouli Khan uſurps the Perſian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with 231,000,000 l. ſterling.
Several public-ſpirited gentlemen begin the ſettlement of Georgia, in North America.

1736 Captain Porteus having ordered his ſoldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a ſmuggler, is himſelf hung by the mob at Edinburgh.

1738 Weſtminſter-bridge, conſiſting of fifteen arches, begun; finiſhed in 1750, at the expenſe of 389,000l. defrayed by parliament.

1739 Letters of marque iſſued out in Britain againſt Spain, July 21; and war declared October 23.

1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the Engliſh and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.

1744 War declared againſt France. Commodore Anſon returns from his voyage round the world.

1745 The allies loſe the battle of Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.

1746 Britiſh Linen Company erected.

1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a reſtitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all ſides.

1749 The intereſt of the Britiſh funds reduced to three per cent.
Britiſh herring fiſhery incorporated.

1750 Frederick, prince of Wales, father to his preſent majeſty, died.
Antiquarian ſociety at London incorporated.

1752 The new ſtyle introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.

1753 The Britiſh muſeum erected at Montagu-houſe.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce inſtituted in London.

1755 Liſbon deſtroyed by an earthquake.

1756 One hundred and forty-ſix Engliſhmen are confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the Eaſt Indies, by order of the nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
Marine Society eſtabliſhed at London.

1757 Damien attempted to aſſaſſinate the French king.

1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the Engliſh.

1760 King George II. dies October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is ſucceeded by his preſent majeſty, who, on the 22d of September 1761, married the princeſs Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Blackfriars bridge, conſiſting of nine arches, begun; finiſhed 1770, at the expenſe of 152,840 l. to be diſcharged by a toll.

1762 War declared againſt Spain.
Peter III. emperor of Ruſſia, is depoſed, impriſoned, and murdered.
American philoſophical ſociety eſtabliſhed in Philadelphia.
George Auguſtus Frederick, prince of Wales, born Aug. 12.

1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extenſive provinces of Canada, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, and part of Louiſiana, in North America; alſo the iſlands of Grenada, St. Vincent's, Dominica, and Tobago, in the Weſt Indies.

1764 The parliament granted 10,000l. to Mr. Harriſon, for his diſcovery of the longitude by his time-piece.

1765 His majeſty's royal charter paſſed for incorporating the ſociety of artiſts.
An act paſſed annexing the ſovereignty of the iſland of Man to the crown of Great Britain.

1766 April 21, a ſpot or macula of the ſun, more than thrice the bigneſs of our earth, paſſed the ſun's centre.

1768 Academy of painting eſtabliſhed in London.
The Turks impriſon the Ruſſian ambaſſador, and declare war againſt that empire.

1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his majeſty's ſhip the Endeavour, lieut. Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made ſeveral important diſcoveries in the South Seas.

1772 The king of Sweden changes the conſtitution of that kingdom.
The Pretender marries a princeſs of Germany, grand-daughter of Thomas, late earl of Ayleſbury.
The emperor of Germany, empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Pruſſia, ſtrip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themſelves, in violation of the moſt ſolemn treaties.

1773 Captain Phipps is ſent to explore the north pole; but, having made eighty-one

degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to diſcover a paſſage in that quarter proves fruitleſs.

1773 The Jeſuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and ſuppreſſed by his bull, Auguſt 25.

The Engliſh Eaſt India Company having, by conqueſt or treaty, acquired the extenſive provinces of Bengal, Orixa, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their ſervants abroad; upon which government interferes, and ſends out judges, &c. for the better adminiſtration of juſtice.

The war between the Ruſſians and Turks proves diſgraceful to the latter, who loſe the iſlands in the Archipelago, and by ſea are everywhere unſucceſsful.

1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Ruſſians and Turks.

The Britiſh parliament having paſſed an act, laying a duty of three-pence per pound upon all teas imported into America, the coloniſts, conſidering this as a grievance, deny the right of a Britiſh parliament to tax them.

Deputies from the ſeveral American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the firſt general congreſs, September 5.

Firſt petition of congreſs to the king, November.

1775 April 19, The firſt action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials at Lexington.

May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.

June 17, A bloody action at Bunker's Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.

1776 March 17, The town of Boſton evacuated by the king's troops.

An unſucceſsful attempt, in July, made by commodore Sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles Town, in South Carolina.

The congreſs declare the American colonies free and independent ſtates, July 4.

The Americans are driven from Long Iſland, New York, in Auguſt, with great loſs, and great numbers of them taken priſoners; and the city of New York is afterwards taken poſſeſſion of by the king's troops.

December 25, General Waſhington takes 900 of the Heſſians priſoners at Trenton.

Torture aboliſhed in Poland.

1777 General Howe takes poſſeſſion of Philadelphia.

Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to ſurrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army, under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, Oct. 17.

1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, February 6.

The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expenſe in Weſtminſter Abbey, June 9, in conſequence of a vote of parliament.

The earl of Carliſle, William Eden, eſq. and George Johnſtone, eſq. arrive at Philadelphia, the beginning of June, as commiſſioners for reſtoring peace between Great Britain and America.

Philadelphia evacuated by the king's troops, June 18.

The congreſs refuſe to treat with the Britiſh commiſſioners, unleſs the independence of the American colonies were firſt acknowledged, or the king's fleets and armies withdrawn from America.

An engagement fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet under the command of count d'Orvilliers, July 27.

Dominica taken by the French, September 7.

Pondicherry ſurrenders to the arms of Great Britain, October 17.

St. Lucia taken from the French, December 28.

1779 St. Vincent taken by the French, June 17.

Grenada taken by the French, July 3.

1780 Torture in courts of juſtice aboliſhed in France.

The Inquiſition aboliſhed in the duke of Modena's dominions.

Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two ſail of Spaniſh ſhips, January 8.

The ſame admiral alſo engages a Spaniſh fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ſhips of the line, one more driven on ſhore, and another blown up, January 16.

Three actions between admiral Rodney and the count de Guichen, in the Weſt Indies, in the months of April and May; but none of them deciſive.

Charles Town, South Carolina, ſurrenders to Sir Henry Clinton, May 4.

Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida, ſurrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.

1780 The pretended Proteſtant Aſſociation, to the number of 50,000, go up to the Houſe of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act paſſed in favour of the Papiſts, June 2.

That event followed by the moſt daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark, for ſeveral ſucceſſive days, in which ſome Popiſh chapels are deſtroyed, together with the priſons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, ſeveral private houſes, &c. Theſe alarming riots are at length ſuppreſſed, by the interpoſition of the military, and many of the rioters are tried and executed for felony.

Five Engliſh Eaſt Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips, bound for the Weſt Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, Auguſt 8.

Earl Cornwallis obtains a ſignal victory over general Gates, near Cambden, in South Carolina, in which above 1000 American priſoners are taken, Aug. 16.

Mr. Laurens, late preſident of the Congreſs, taken in an American packet, near Newfoundland, September 3.

General Arnold deſerts the ſervice of the Congreſs, eſcapes to New York, and is made a brigadier-general in the royal ſervice, Sept. 24.

Major André, adjutant-general to the Britiſh army, hanged as a ſpy at Tappan, in the province of New-York, October 2.

Mr. Laurens is committed priſoner to the Tower, on a charge of high treaſon, Oct. 4.

Dreadful hurricanes in the Weſt Indies, by which great devaſtation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other iſlands, Oct. 3 and 10.

A declaration of hoſtilities publiſhed againſt Holland, December 20.

1781 The Dutch iſland of St. Euſtatia, taken by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, February 3, retaken by the French, November 27.

Earl Cornwallis obtains a victory, but with conſiderable loſs, over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15.

The iſland of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.

A bloody engagement fought between an Engliſh ſquadron under the command of admiral Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zootman, off the Dogger Bank, Auguſt 5.

Earl Cornwallis, with a conſiderable Britiſh army, ſurrendered priſoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of general Waſhington and count Rochambeau, at York-town in Virginia, October 19.

1782 Trincomalé, on the iſland of Ceylon, taken by admiral Hughes, January 11.

Minorca ſurrendered to the arms of the king of Spain, February 5.

The iſland of St. Chriſtopher taken by the French, February 12.

The iſland of Nevis taken by the French, February 14.

Montſerrat taken by the French, February 22.

The houſe of commons addreſs the king againſt any further proſecution of offenſive war on the continent of North America, March 4; and reſolve, that that houſe would conſider all thoſe as enemies to his majeſty and this country, who ſhould adviſe, or by any means attempt, the further proſecution of offenſive war on the continent of North America, for the purpoſe of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.

Admiral Rodney obtains a ſignal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Graſſe, near Dominica in the Weſt Indies, April 12.

Admiral Hughes, with eleven ſhips, beat off, near the iſland of Ceylon, the French admiral, Suffrein, with twelve ſhips of the line, after a ſevere engagement, in which both fleets loſt a great number of men, April 13.

The reſolution of the houſe of commons relating to John Wilkes, eſq. and the Middleſex election, paſſed Feb. 17, 1769, reſcinded May 3.

The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legiſlation of Ireland, received the royal aſſent, June 20.

The French took and deſtroyed the forts and ſettlements in Hudſon's Bay, Auguſt 24.

The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.

Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, October 8.

Proviſional articles of peace, ſigned at Paris between the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, by which the thirteen United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majeſty to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates, November 30.

1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majeſty and the kings of France and Spain, ſigned at Verſailles, January 20.

The order of St. Patrick inſtituted, February 5.

Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, deſtroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, February 5, 7, and 28th.

Armiſtice between Great Britain and Holland, February 10.
Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, September 3.

1784 The city of London wait on the king with an addreſs of thanks for diſmiſſing the coalition miniſtry, January 16.
The great ſeal ſtolen from the chancellor's houſe in Great Ormond-ſtreet, Mar. 24.
The ratification of the peace with America arrived April 7.
The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee, at Weſtminſter-Abbey, May 26.
Proclamation for a public thankſgiving, July 2.
Mr. Lunardi aſcended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the firſt attempt of the kind in England, September 15.
The bull feaſts aboliſhed in Spain, except for pious or patriotic uſes, by edict, November 14.

1785 Mr. Blanchard and Dr. Jefferies went from Dover to Calais in an air balloon, in about two hours, January 7.
A treaty of confederacy to preſerve the indiviſibility of the German empire, entered into by the king of Pruſſia, the electors of Hanover, Saxony, and Mentz, May 29.
M. de Roſier and M. Romain aſcended at Boulogne, intending to croſs the channel; in twenty minutes the balloon took fire, and the aeronauts came to the ground and were killed on the ſpot.
The toll was taken off Blackfriars bridge. June 22.
The preliminaries of peace were ſigned between the emperor and Holland, at Paris, September 20.
The above powers ſigned the definitive treaty, and a treaty of alliance between France and the Dutch, on the 16th of November.
Dr. Seabury, an American miſſionary, was conſtituted biſhop of Connecticut, by five non-juring Scotch prelates, Nov.

1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the uſe of torture in his dominions.
Cardinal Turlone, high inquiſitor at Rome, was publicly dragged out of his carriage by an incenſed multitude for his cruelty, and hung on a gibbet fifty feet high.
Commercial treaty ſigned between England and France, September 26.
471,000 l. 3 per cent. ſtock transferred to the landgrave of Heſſe, for Heſſian ſoldiers loſt in the American war, at 30l. a man, Nov. 21.
Mr. Adams, the American ambaſſador, preſented Dr. White of Pennſylvania, and Dr. Provoſt of New York, to the archbiſhop of Canterbury, to be conſecrated biſhops for the United States. They were conſecrated Feb. 4, 1787.

1787 Mr. Burke at the bar of the houſe of lords, in the name of all the commons of Great Britain, impeached Warren Haſtings, late governor-general of Bengal, of high crimes and miſdemeanors, May 21.
The king, by letters patent, erected the province of Nova Scotia into a biſhop's ſee, and appointed Dr. Charles Engliſh to be the biſhop, Aug. 11.

1788 In the early part of October, the firſt ſymptoms appeared of a ſevere diſorder, which afflicted our gracious ſovereign. On the ſixth of November they were very alarming, and on the thirteenth a form of prayer for his recovery was ordered by the privy council.

1789 His majeſty was pronounced to be in a ſtate of convaleſcence, February 17; and to be free from complaint, February 26.
A general thankſgiving for the king's recovery, who attended the ſervice at St. Paul's, with a great proceſſion, April 23.
Revolution in France, capture of the Baſtile, execution of the governor, &c. July 14.

1790 Grand confederation in the champ de Mars, July 14.

1791 In conſequence of ſome gentlemen meeting to commemorate the French revolution in Birmingham on the 14th of July, the mob aroſe and committed the moſt dangerous outrages for ſome days on the perſons and properties of many of the inhabitants of the town and neighbourhood, burning and deſtroying meeting-houſes, private dwellings, &c. Peace and ſecurity were at length reſtored by the interpoſition of the military power.

1792 The definitive treaty of peace was ſigned between the Britiſh and their allies, the Nizam and Mahrattas on one part, and Tippoo Sultan on the other, March 19th, by which he ceded one half of his territorial poſſeſſions, and delivered up two of his ſons to lord Cornwallis, as hoſtages for the fulfilment of the treaty.
Guſtavus III. king of Sweden, died on the 29th of March, in conſequence of being aſſaſſinated by Ankerſtroom.

1793 Louis XVI. after having received innumerable indignities from his people, was brought to the ſcaffold, January 21, and had his head ſevered by the guillotine, contrary to the expreſs laws of the new conſtitution, which had declared the perſon of the king inviolable.

On the 25th of March, lord Grenville and count Woronzow ſigned a convention at London on behalf of his Britannic majeſty and the empreſs of Ruſſia, to employ their forces, conjointly, in a war againſt France. Treaties were alſo entered into with the king of Sardinia and the prince of Heſſe Caſſel.

The unfortunate queen of France, on the 16th of October, was conducted to the ſpot where Louis had previouſly met his fate, and beheaded by the guillotine in the thirty-eighth year of her age.

1794 On the firſt of June, the Britiſh fleet under the command of admiral earl Howe, obtained a ſignal victory over that of the French, in which two ſhips were ſunk, one burnt, and ſix brought into Portſmouth harbour.

1795 In conſequence of the rapid progreſs of the French arms in Holland, the princeſs of Orange, the hereditary princeſs, and her infant ſon, arrived at Yarmouth on the 19th of January. The Stadtholder landed at Harwich on the 20th.

George prince of Wales married to the princeſs Caroline of Brunſwic, April 8.

The trial of Warren Haſtings concluded on the 23d of April, when he was acquitted of the charges brought againſt him by the houſe of commons.

1796 Lord Malmeſbury went to Paris in October, to open negotiations for a general peace; but returned Dec. 29, without having effected the object of his miſſion.

1797 A ſignal victory gained over the Spaniſh fleet by ſir John Jervis, ſince created earl St. Vincent, February 14.

An alarming mutiny on board the Channel fleet at Spithead, April 15.

The nuptials of the prince of Wirtemberg and the princeſs royal celebrated at St. James's, May 18.

Another alarming mutiny on board the fleet at Sheerneſs.

Parker, the chief leader in this mutiny, executed on board the Sandwich at Blackſtakes, June 30.

Lord Malmeſbury arrived at Liſle July 4, and opened a negotiation for a peace between England and the French republic, but again returned without effecting the object of his miſſion, September 19.

A ſignal victory gained over the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, October 11.

Peace between France and Auſtria definitively ſigned at Campo Formio, Oct. 17.

A general thankſgiving for the late great naval victories. The king and the members of both houſes of parliament attended divine ſervice at St. Paul's in grand proceſſion, Dec. 19.

1798 A dreadful rebellion in Ireland, which was quelled, after ſeveral battles with the inſurgents, and much bloodſhed.

The glorious victory of admiral Nelſon at Aboukir, near the mouth of the Nile, in which nine French ſhips of the line were taken, and two burnt; only two eſcaping, which were afterwards taken, Auguſt 1.

1799 The war againſt France recommenced by the emperor; and the French driven out of almoſt all their conqueſts in Italy, by the Auſtrians and Ruſſians under Suwarrow.

Seringapatam taken by lieut.-general Harris, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.

The directorial government aboliſhed in France, and a new conſtitution framed, according to which Buonaparte is to be firſt conſul for ten years.

1800 A horrid attempt made on the life of his majeſty by James Hadfield, a lunatic, who fired a piſtol at him from the pit of Drury-lane theatre, May 15.

The bill for a union with Ireland ſigned, July 2.

## MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Dates is implied the Time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flouriſhed is ſignified by fl. The Names in Italics are thoſe who have given the beſt Engliſh Tranſlations, incluſive of School Books.*

Bef. Ch.

907 HOMER, the firſt profane writer and Greek poet, flouriſhed. *Pope. Cowper.*

Heſiod, the Greek poet, ſuppoſed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*

884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.

600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poeteſs, fl. *Fawkes.*

558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.

556 Æſop, the firſt Greek fabuliſt. *Croxal.*

548 Thales, the firſt Greek aſtronomer and geographer.
497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philoſophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Addiſon.*
456 Æſchylus, the firſt Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*
435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *Weſt.*
413 Herodotus of Greece, the firſt writer of profane hiſtory. *Littlebury. Beloe.*
407 Ariſtophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White.*
Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull.*
406 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin. Potter.*
Confucius, the Chineſe philoſopher, fl.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy in Greece.
391 Thucydides, the Greek hiſtorian. *Smith. Hobbes.*
361 Hippocrates, the Greek phyſician. *Clifton.*
Democritus, the Greek philoſopher.
359 Xenophon, ditto, and hiſtorian. *Smith. Spelman. Aſhly. Fielding.*
348 Plato, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*
336 Iſocrates, the Greek orator. *Gillies.*
332 Ariſtotle, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*
313 Demoſthenes, the Athenian orator, poiſoned himſelf. *Leland. Francis.*
288 Theophraſtus, the Greek philoſopher, and ſcholar of Ariſtotle. *Budgel.*
285 Theocritus, the firſt Greek paſtoral poet, fl. *Fawkes.*
277 Euclid, of Alexandria in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simſon.*
270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philoſophy in Greece. *Digby.*
264 Xeno, founder of the ſtoic philoſophy in ditto.
244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet. *Tytler.*
208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*
159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.*
155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the ſtoic philoſopher.
124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman hiſtorian. *Hampton.*
54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
44 Julius Cæſar, the Roman hiſtorian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*
Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the univerſal hiſtorian, fl. *Booth.*
Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philoſopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.*
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.*
34 Salluſt, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon. Roſe.*
30 Dionyſius of Halicarnaſſus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Spelman.*
19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden. Pitt. Warton.*
11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Grainger. Dart.*
8 Horace, the Roman lyric and ſatiric poet. *Francis.*

A. C.
17 Livy, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hay.*
19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*
20 Celſus, the Roman philoſopher and phyſician, fl. *Grieve.*
25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
33 Phædrus, the Roman fabuliſt. *Smart.*
45 Paterculus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Newcome.*
62 Perſius, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Brewſter.*
64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman hiſtorian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby.*
64 Seneca, of Spain, the philoſopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Eſtrange.*
65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Rowe.*
79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural hiſtorian. *Holland.*
93 Joſephus, the Jewiſh hiſtorian. *Whiſton.*
94 Epictetus, the Greek ſtoic philoſopher, fl. *Mrs. Carter.*
95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*
96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
99 Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon. Murphy.*
104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
116 Pliny the younger, hiſtorical letters. *Melmoth. Orrery.*
117 Suetonius, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hughes. Thomſon.*
119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden. Langhorne.*
128 Juvenal, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Dryden.*
140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and aſtronomer, fl.
150 Juſtin, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Turnbull.*

161 Arrian, the Roman hiſtorian and philoſopher, fl. *Rooke.*
167 Juſtin, of Samaria, the oldeſt Chriſtian author after the apoſtles.
180 Lucian, the Roman philologer. *Dimſdale. Dryden. Franklin.*
Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman emperor and philoſopher. *Collier. Elphinſtone.*
193 Galen, the Greek philoſopher and phyſician.
200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Caſſius, of Greece, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
254 Origen, a Chriſtian father, of Alexandria.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Hart.*
258 Cyprian, of Carthage, ſuffered martyrdom. *Marſhal.*
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl
336 Arius, a prieſt of Alexandria, founder of the ſect of Arians.
342 Euſebius, the eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian and chronologer. *Hanmer.*
379 Baſil, biſhop of Ceſarea.
389 Gregory Nazianzen, biſhop of Conſtantinople.
397 Ambroſe, biſhop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
428 Eutropius, the Roman hiſtorian.
524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philoſopher. *Bellamy. Preſton. Redpath.*
529 Procopius, of Cæſarea, the Roman hiſtorian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illuſtrious liſt of ancient, or, as they are ſtyled, Claſſic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, thoſe two great theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a ſmall part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of thoſe illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, ſubverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined ſoon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Conſtantinople alone had eſcaped the ravages of the barbarians; and to the few literati who ſheltered themſelves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preſervation of thoſe valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, ſucceeded worſe than Gothic ignorance—the ſuperſtition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the ſpace of a thouſand years; a period which hiſtorians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century, from which memorable æra a race of men have ſprung up in a new ſoil, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at leaſt equal, the greateſt geniuſes of antiquity. Of theſe our own countrymen have the reputation of the firſt rank, with whoſe names we ſhall finiſh our liſt.

A. C.
735 Bede, a prieſt of Northumberland; Hiſtory of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; hiſtory, philoſophy, and poetry.
1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; Hiſtory of England.
1292 Roger Bacon, Somerſetſhire; natural philoſophy.
1308 John Fordun, a prieſt of Mearns-ſhire; Hiſtory of Scotland.
1400 Geoffry Chaucer, London, the father of Engliſh poetry.
1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas More, London, hiſtory, politics, divinity.
1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
1568 Roger Aſcham, Yorkſhire; philology and polite literature.
1572 Reverend John Knox, the Scotch reformer; Hiſtory of the church of Scotland.
1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonſhire; Hiſtory of Scotland, Pſalms of David, politics, &c.
1598 Edmund Spenſer, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
1615—25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.
1616 William Shakſpeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
1622 John Napier, of Marcheſton, Scotland; diſcoverer of logarithms.
1623 William Cambden, London; hiſtory and antiquities.
1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philoſophy and literature in general.
1634 Lord Chief Juſtice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
1638 Ben Jonſon, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
1654 John Selden, Suſſex, antiquities and laws.
1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; diſcovered the circulation of the blood.
1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miſcellaneous poetry.
1674 John Milton, London; Paradiſe Loſt, Regained, and various other pieces in verſe and proſe.

1674 Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltſhire; Hiſtory of the Civil Wars in England.
1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.
1677 Reverend Dr. Iſaac Barrow, London; natural philoſophy, mathematics, and ſermons.
1680 Samuel Butler, Worceſterſhire; Hudibras, a burleſque poem.
1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, ſpeeches, letters, &c.
1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somerſetſhire; Intellectual Syſtem.
1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorſetſhire; Hiſtory of Phyſic.
1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.
Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.
1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philoſophy and theology.
Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and laws of Scotland.
1694 John Tillotſon, archbiſhop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 ſermons.
1697 Sir William Temple, London; politics and polite literature.
1701 John Dryden, Northamptonſhire; 27 tragedies and comedies, ſatiric poems, Virgil.
1704 John Locke, Somerſetſhire; philoſophy, government, and theology.
1705 John Ray, Eſſex; botany, natural philoſophy, and divinity.
1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.
1713 Ant. Aſh. Cooper, earl of Shafteſbury; Characteriſtics.
1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, biſhop of Saliſbury; hiſtory, biography, divinity, &c.
1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonſhire; ſeven tragedies, tranſlation of Lucan's Pharſalia.
1719 Rev. John Flamſteed, Derbyſhire; mathematics and aſtronomy.
Joſeph Addiſon, Wiltſhire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.
Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and aſtronomy.
1721 Matthew Prior, poems and politics.
1724 William Woolaſton, Staffordſhire; Religion of Nature delineated.
1727 Sir Iſaac Newton, Lincolnſhire; mathematics, geometry, aſtronomy, optics.
1729 Revd. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
William Congreve, Staffordſhire; ſeven dramatic pieces.
1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Mearns-ſhire; medicine, coins, politics.
1742 Dr. Edmund Halley, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, navigation.
Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkſhire; claſſical learning, criticiſm.
1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, tranſlation of Homer.
1745 Revd. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
1746 Colin M'Laurin, Argyleſhire; algebra, view of Newton's philoſophy.
1748 James Thomſon, Roxburghſhire; Seaſons, and other poems, five tragedies.
Reverend Dr. Iſaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philoſophy, pſalms, hymns, ſermons, &c.
Dr. Francis Hutcheſon, Ayrſhire; ſyſtem of moral philoſophy.
1750 Reverend Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkſhire; Life of Cicero, &c.
Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphyſics, and natural philoſophy.
1751 Henry St. John, lord Bolingbroke, Surrey; philoſophy, metaphyſics, and politics.
Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.
1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poiſons, plague, ſmall-pox, medicine, precept.
Henry Fielding, Somerſetſhire; Tom Jones, Joſeph Andrews, &c.
1757 Colley Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.
1761 Thomas Sherlock, biſhop of London; 69 ſermons, &c.
Benjamin Hoadly, biſhop of Wincheſter; ſermons and controverſy.
Samuel Richardſon, London; Grandiſon, Clariſſa, Pamela.
Reverend Dr. John Leland, Lancaſhire; Anſwer to Deiſtical Writers.
1765 Rev. Dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, three tragedies.
Robert Simſon, Glaſgow; Conic Sections, Euclid, Apollonius.
1768 Revd. Lawrence Sterne; 45 Sermons, Sentimental Journey, Triſtram Shandy.
1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnſhire; harmonics and optics.
1770 Revd. Dr. Jortin; Life of Eraſmus, Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, and ſermons.
Dr. Mark Akenſide, Newcaſtle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonſhire; Hiſtory of England, novels, tranſlations.
1771 Thomas Gray, profeſſor of Modern Hiſtory, Cambridge; poems.
1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Cheſterfield; letters.
George lord Lyttelton, Worceſterſhire; Hiſtory of England.
1774 Oliver Goldſmith; poems, eſſays, and other pieces.
Zachary Pearce, biſhop of Rocheſter; Annotations on the New Teſtament, &c.
1775 Dr. John Hawkeſworth; eſſays.

1776 David Hume, Merſe; Hiſtory of England, and eſſays.
James Ferguſon, Aberdeenſhire; aſtronomy.
1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.
William Warburton, biſhop of Glouceſter; Divine Legation of Moſes, and various other works.
1780 Sir William Blackſtone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkſhire; philoſophy and medicine.
James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, Philoſophical Arrangements.
1782 Thomas Newton, biſhop of Briſtol, Lichfield; Diſcourſes on the Prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxburghſhire; Diſeaſes of the Army.
Henry Home, lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticiſm, Sketches of the Hiſtory of Man.
1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkſhire; anatomy.
Dr. Benjamin Kennicott, Devonſhire; Hebrew Bible, Diſſertations, &c.
1784 Dr. Samuel Johnſon, Lichfield; Engliſh Dictionary, biography, eſſays, poetry, died December 13, aged 71.
1785 William Whitehead, poet-laureat; poems and plays.
Revd. Richard Burn, LL.D. author of the Juſtice of Peace, Eccleſiaſtical Law, &c. died November 20.
Richard Glover, eſq. Leonidas, Medea, &c. died Nov. 25.
1786 Jonas Hanway, eſq. travels, miſcellanies, died September 5, aged 74.
1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, biſhop of London; criticiſm, divinity, grammar, died Nov. 3.
Soame Jenyns, eſq. Internal Evidence of the Chriſtian Religion, and other pieces, died December 18.
1788 James Stuart, eſq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart," died Feb. 1.
Thomas Gainſborough, eſq. the celebrated painter, died Auguſt 2.
Thomas Sheridan, eſq. Engliſh Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c. died Aug. 14.
1789 William Julius Mickle, eſq. Cumberland; tranſlator of the Luſiad, died Oct. 15.
1790 Dr. Will. Cullen, Scotland; Practice of Phyſic, Materia Medica, &c. died Feb. 5.
Benjamin Franklin, eſq. Boſton, New England; Electricity, Natural Philoſophy, miſcellanies, died April 17.
Dr. Adam Smith, Scotland; Moral Sentiment, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations, died April 17.
John Howard, eſq. Middleſex; Account of Priſons and Lazarettos, &c.
Revd. Thomas Warton, B.D. poet-laureat; Hiſtory of Engliſh Poetry, Poems, died April 21.
1791 Revd. Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganſhire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reverſionary Payments, Sermons, &c. died Feb. 19, aged 68.
Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Annandale; Poems, Conſolations from Natural and Revealed Religion, died July, aged 70.
1792 Sir Joſhua Reynolds, Devonſhire; Preſident of the Royal Academy of Painting; Diſcourſes on Painting delivered before the Academy, died Feb. 19, aged 68.
1793 Revd. Dr. William Robertſon, Principal of the Univerſity of Edinburgh, and Hiſtoriographer to his majeſty for Scotland; Hiſtory of Scotland, of the Reign of Charles V. Hiſtory of America, and Hiſtorical Diſquiſition concerning India, died June 11, aged 72.
1794 Edward Gibbon, eſq. Surry; Hiſtory of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, died January 16.
1795 Sir William Jones, one of the judges of India, and preſident of the Aſiatic Society; ſeveral law tracts, tranſlation of Iſæus, and of the Moallakat, or ſeven Arabian poems, and many valuable papers in the Aſiatic Reſearches.
1797 Edmund Burke, eſq. Sublime and Beautiful, Tracts on the French Revolution.
1799 W. Melmoth; Tranſlations of Pliny's and Cicero's Letters, Fitzosborne's Letters, &c.
Lord Monboddo; Origin and Progreſs of Language.

FINIS.

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